FIRST PART

OR THE

AMERICAN SYSTEM

OF

NGLISH SYNTAX,

SECURIORISMS

THE CONSTRUCTIVE PRINCIPLES

OR THE

PAGLISH LANGUAGE, OR PHRENOD.

IN THREE PARTS

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BY LAMES BROWN.

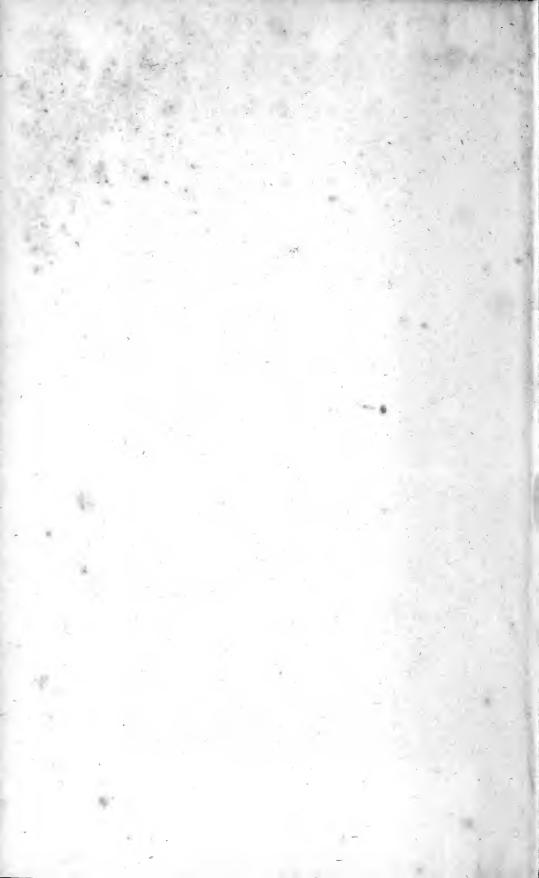
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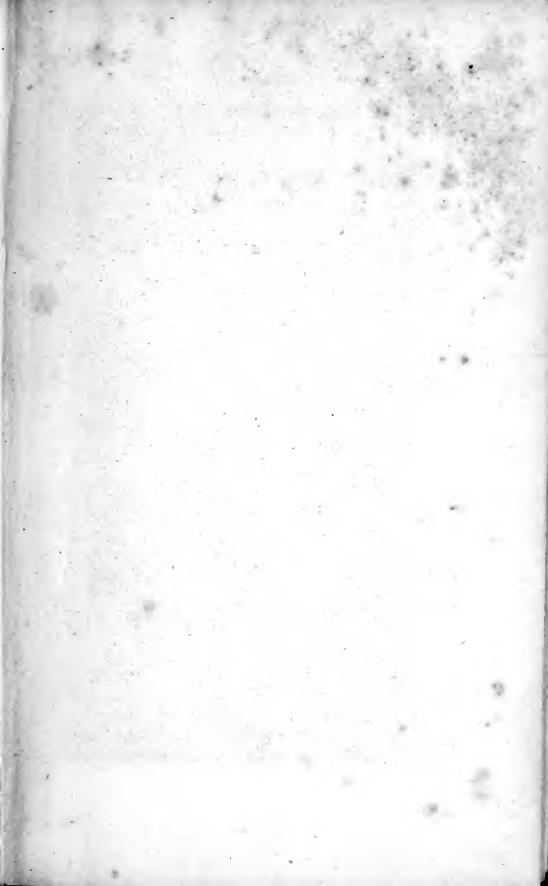
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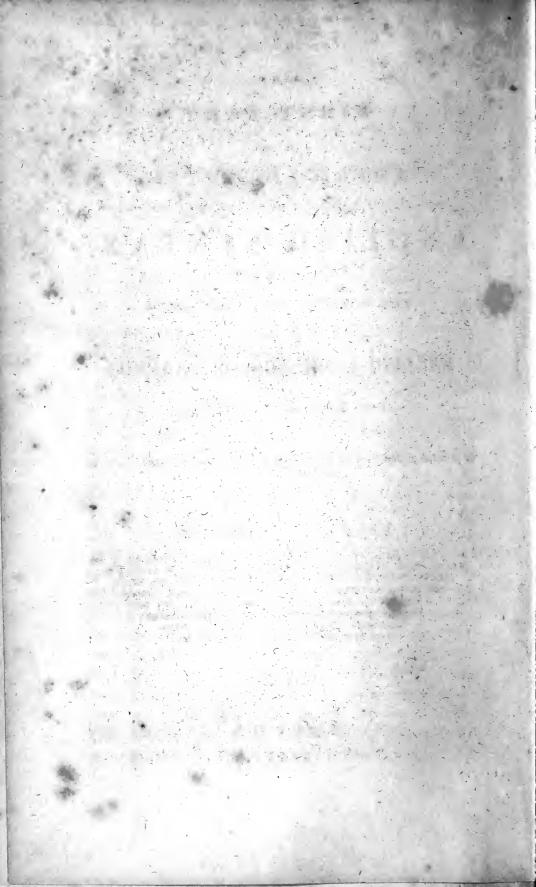


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THE

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OF THE

AMERICAN SYSTEM

OI

ENGLISH SYNTAX,

DEVELOPING

THE CONSTRUCTIVE PRINCIPLES

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE, OR PHRENOD.

IN THREE PARTS.

Is it more difficult to teach truth than error? and is it more useful to learn error than truth?

BY JAMES BROWN,

Author of the Exegesis of the Old System of English Grammar, of the Appeal from the Old System, and of an English Syntascope, calculated to illustrate the Syntax Principles of the English Language, and to impress them on the memory by pictorial, and scenical demonstration, thus enabling the adult at home, and the child at school, to acquire, in a few months, a better knowledge of Syntax by the American system than they can ever acquire by the British.

W

B O S T O N.
1841.

PE 109.61

Entered according to act of Congress, in the year 1841, by

JAMES BROWN,

Vet. 16.72.9

in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Massachusetts.



EXTRACT FROM THE COPYRIGHT LAW.

§ 7. And be it further enacted, That, if any person, or persons, after the recording the title of any print, cut, or engraving, map, chart, or musical composition, according to the provisions of this act, shall, within the term or terms limited by this act, engrave, etch, or work, sell, or copy, or cause to be engraved, etched, worked, or sold, or copied, either on the whole, or by varying, adding to, or diminishing the main design, with intent to evade the law, or shall print or import for sale, or cause to be printed or imported for sale, any such map, chart, musical composition, print, cut, or engraving, or any parts thereof, without the consent of the proprietor or pro-prietors of the copyright thereof, first obtained in writing, signed in the presence of two credible witnesses; or, knowing the same to be so printed or imported without such consent, shall publish, sell, or expose to sale, or in any manner dispose of, any such map, chart, musical composition, engraving, cut, or print, without such consent, as aforesaid, then such offender or offenders shall forfeit the plate or plates on which such map, chart, musical composition, engraving, cut, or print shall be copied, and also all and every sheet thereof so copied or printed, as aforesaid, to the proprietor or proprietors of the copyright thereof; and shall further forfeit one dollar for every sheet of such map, chart, musical composition, print, cut, or engraving, which may be found in his or their possession, printed or published, or exposed to sale, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act; the one moiety thereof to the proprietor or proprietors, and the other moiety to the use of the United States, to be recovered in any court having competent jurisdiction thereof.

SAMUBL B. WYLLE, D. D. VICE PROVOST

OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

SIR:

- It is beyond doubt that English Grammar has been in an unsettled state from its commencement to the present period. although it is not my design to enumerate the various injurious effects of this fugitive state of so important a branch of education, yet it may not be improper to remark that one of these results is the frequent change which teachers feel justified in making upon a mere possibility of procuring an improved Grammar. Our schools are almost quarterly disturbed by the introduction of a new system of prating about nouns and verbs. The people of our common country have long felt the bad effects of this perpetuity in the change of a book which attempts the development of a popular science. can they be ignorant of the fact that the unsoundness of the British system of English philology, is the primary cause of this alternate adoption and rejection which have for years distracted parents, children and teachers upon the subject of the true structure of their vernacular tongue. I have long been satisfied that nothing but a sovereign remedy for the disease of this old British theory, can arrest the constant change which the numerous attempts to improve this system enable teachers to make; and I have long been convinced that this remedy is a full removal of this British work of defect. error, absurdity and contradiction, from our schools, from our libraries, and from our affections, by a substitution of a system which

can be inducted into its place under the sanction of philological truth, and under the guardianship of one whose soundness of judgment, depth of erudition, and love of country, will induce the learned to examine, and others to confide. That pride of opinion, attachment of habit, and belief in the adequateness of the British system, will yield at once, is an event bordering too much upon a miracle, to be expected in these days. On the contrary, should these stern attributes not array themselves against this undertaking, their neutrality would commence a new epoch in human nature, and in human events.

Nothing so effectually prevents improvement as a belief of present perfection. It is observed by Mr. Murray that little improvement in English Grammar can be expected at so late a period of the science. While, sir, I have ever felt perfectly willing that Mr. Murray should enjoy his own opinions on the subject of English phrenody, I have never been inclined so far to participate in his enjoyment as to subscribe to their doctrines. The court of chance, condition or fate, has decided that I should meet Mr. Murray in open combat, and withstand him page for page. Whether this verdict is to be viewed as the penalty of the crime of venturing to differ in opinion from the distinguished champion of the British principles of English philology, or whether it should be considered an appointment to bring the enslaved child from literary bondage, must be solved by time itself, which leaves no blank in the history of man. Be that as it may, I have yielded to the mandate of this tribunal, from which, it seemed to me, no appeal would lie. I had commenced my exposition of the unsoundness of the British system, before the private virtues, public worth, and rare learning of Mr. Murray, were connected with the memory of the dead. His exit, like that of every great and good man, has hallowed the works of his hands—it has raised his erudition into a monument of fame, which will never crumble beneath the pen of the critic, nor suffer from the lapse of time. Nor shall my hand be raised to take one

particle of granite from the imperishable pile. But while I wish this memento to the fame of a distinguished scholar to endure with out change, I rejoice in the rescue of that philological corpse which lay beneath the monumental mass of this great man's literary glory. Sir, do I seem affected? It is natural that I should feel—the dead body which I have for years toiled to remove from beneath this tower, was a near and dear relative of my vernacular tongue! Having at length made the rescue, I have presented, under your protection, the lifeless mass to my country for reanimation;—her touch can make the dead corpse live. And I entreat her not to withhold itlet him that is now dead, sit up, and begin to speak—let him teach the tender vines, which now hang in graceful festoons upon the branches of the tree of science, to wind their course up to its celestial summit. Yes, if into our republican Eden this tree has been transplanted, let us not slumber while banqueting upon the rich gums which exude from its trunk—rather let us beautify its boughs with American flowers, enrich the soil where it stands, and sweeten the fruit which it yields.

May your life be as long as your feelings are generous; may your future days be as happy as your past ones have been useful; and may your setting sun be as resplendent, and serene as your earthly career has been honorable and exemplary.

THE AUTHOR.

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APPROVERS OF THE SYSTEM.

Boston.

Barnum Field, Grammar Master in the Franklin Public School. William D. Swan, Grammar Master in the Mayhew Public School.

Frederick Crafts, Grammar Master in the Hawes Public School. Cornelius Walker, Grammar Master in the Wells Public School. Abner Forbes, Grammar Master in the Smith Public School. Joseph Hale Abbot, Principal of a Young Ladies' Seminary.

William Russell, A. M., Editor of the American Journal of Education, (First Series.)

T. Kidder, Principal of a Private School for preparing young gentlemen for business, or college. No. 36 Hancock Street.

Philadelphia.

Dr. S. B. Wylie, Professor of Languages in Pennsylvania University.

Rev. S. W. Crawford, Principal of the Academy connected with the University.

John Sanderson, Professor of Languages in the Philadelphia High School.

H. M'Murtrie, M. D., Professor of Special Physics in the Philadelphia High School.

Professor Espy.

C. J. Ingersoll, Roberts Vaux, Wm. Meredith, D. P. Brown, Dr.
W. C. Brinckle, Dr. A. Comstock, Thomas A. Taylor, Mr. Slack,
Mr. Goodfellow, David Maclure, Thomas M. Raser, E. Fouse,
S. H. Wilson, Mr. Trego, Mr. Depuy, Mr. Ashton, Mr. Anderson.
Pittsburgh.—R. N. Smith, John M'Nivins, Thomas H. Harris.

Harrisburg.—John Maginnis, S. Douglass, A. T. Dean, A. L. Keagy, J. D. Rupp.

New York.

De Witt Clinton, E. Nott, President of Union College; Professor Yates, Union College; Rev. Samuel B. Blatchford, Rev. John Chester, Rev. C. G. Somers, Rev. D. H. Barnes, Rev. C. Schaeffer, Rev. Solomon Brown, Rev. D. Parker, C. M. Thayer, Charles Spaulding, L. S. Lownsbury.

Utica.—Charles Bartlett, William Barbour, Euridge Whiffen, G. Comstock, Wm. Williams, L. Bayley, E. Ames, (teachers.)

Ithaca.—Wm. Irving, George C. Freer, M. Baird, G. D. Beers, Isaac Day, A. G. Dunning, K. Hulin, Mr. Davis.

Homer.—Samuel B. Woolworth.

Cazenovia.—Daniel M'Ewen, Daniel E. Burhans.

Maryland.

Rev. John Findlay, James Gould, Mr. Stewart, S. Jones, Mr. Packard, J. Dyke, Mr. Mills, Wm. Wickes, E. Bennett, J. V. Berry, D. H. Bingham, David C. Rosco, C. Coleman, J. Brown.

Mount St. Mary's Seminary.—Rev. James Lynch, J. Butler, John H. M'Caffery, James Curny, Matthew Taylor, Barnard O. Cavanagh, John M'Clasky, Edward Sourin, Edward Collins, Thomas Butler, (all professors.)

District of Columbia.

Rev. Thomas Wheat, Benjamin Hallowell, John R. Pierpoint, Mr. Allison, C. K. Gardner.

Kentucky.

S. J. Anderson, James Holton, R. Fleming, James Fleming, B. F. Reeves.

(See Recommendations at the close of the book.)

An extract from the letter of Dr. Samuel B. Wylie, Vice Provost of the University of Pennsylvania.

"Brown's system, duly appreciated, and adopted into our schools, will soon disenthral the grammar of our language from the shackles fastened upon it by the most celebrated grammarians, from the earliest period down to the present day. The crudities, inconsistencies, and absurdities of the definitions, and views of Murray's system, whose empire for many years has been the most extensive, will, upon the perusal of Brown's exercises, appear obvious, and utterly indefensible.

"In attending to the mechanism of the language, the student is insensibly introduced into the most interesting and useful parts of its philology; and his intellectual powers become gradually developed, stimulated, and delighted by the recognition of its philosophic principles. In short, Mr. Brown's system forms a new epoch in the history of English Syntax, as important in our language as the

steamboat in our waters."

H. Fuller, Esq. Boston, August 6, 1841.

Dear Sir:—In September, 1839, in answer to the request of a friend, who inquired of me what I thought of Brown's American System of Grammar, I replied in the following words: "I have for many years been acquainted with this gentleman's profound inves-

tigations into the very mysteries of our language; and I am sure he has done more than any other man to lay open the absurdities and inconsistencies of Murray and his host of followers. But this is not all. He has built up a beautiful and luminous system of his own, founded, as I conceive, on true principles, simple in their nature, and coherent in all their parts; and he has thus formed grammar into a science, which, from the logical connection of all its parts, teres et rotunda in se ipsâ, will furnish hereafter to the student one of the finest and most healthful exercises of the human mind. To the teacher of youth especially, it cannot fail to be a highly interesting and valuable work, whether he may choose to adopt it entire into his school or not.

"I have now taught the English grammar for thirty years, and I have read all the grammars of any note on the subject; but I have found none, except the American System, by James Brown, which is not full of absurdities and contradictions. I feel a deep interest in the progress of a sound, rational and healthful education; and if my voice could be heard through the whole length and breadth of our land, I would say to all teachers, examine the work carefully

for yourselves."

At the time of writing the above statement, I had not much experience as to the comparative ease with which pupils can be made acquainted with the two nomenclatures. Indeed, I was not then so fully impressed with the immeasurable superiority of the new nomenclature as I am now. nor had I seen, by a trial, as I have lately seen, the most conclusive proof that children may be taught the new nomenclature in a much shorter time than they can the old. One reason of this is, the new nomenclature is not arbitrary, but founded in the nature of grammar itself. Mr. Brown has discovered the true relation of words to each other, and their power in forming sentences—relations and powers which in many particulars were not known before. He has founded his nomenclature on these powers and these relations, and it will be seen, by any one who will study

the system, that the nomenclature contains the science.

When I first turned over the pages of Mr. Brown's grammar, and saw his new terms, it struck me that it would be impossible to introduce a system, however beautifully formed, while encumbered with such a nomenclature; and I strongly advised Mr. Brown to retain the old nomenclature. At this time I was not aware of the extreme beauty and simplicity of the new nomenclature, nor of the impossibility of using the old names to express the new principles on which the new system is founded. Besides, there are in Brown's grammar several new departments, of high importance, to which nothing corresponds in the old system, and for which new names are absolutely necessary. Now these few names are the foundation of the superstructure, and by a few suffixes and affixes to these elementary principles, the whole system successively rises to view, incorporated with its nomenclature, in splendid harmony and fair proportion. I still had some doubt whether children could be made to understand with comparative ease, and retain a nomenclature so refined in its principles and systematic in its arrangement. This doubt is entirely removed by

an experiment on children of eight and nine years of age. I was present six successive days, while Mr. Brown was teaching these children the elementary principles of his grammar, employing his hieroglyphics and his new nomenclature. This experiment was entirely successful, and it will prove to any one who shall make himself acquainted with the progress these children have made in this short period, that the system is eminently practical, and calculated in a high degree to strengthen the intellect, and improve the discriminating powers of all who may devote their attention to it long enough to become well acquainted with the strictly logical manner in which all its parts are put together.

> In haste I subscribe myself Yours, very truly,

JAMES P. ESPY.

I have examined with considerable care Mr. James Brown's system of English Grammar. Its fundamental principles are entirely original, and appear to me not only to be in harmony with the true genius of the English language, but to be eminently fitted to interest and discipline the youthful mind. Many of these principles, as well as the numerous exercises founded on them, of great practical value, have no counterpart in the old system. Its nomenclature, so far as it is necessary for the pupil's use, is easy of acquisition; and, superseding, as it does, the necessity of numerous abstract definitions, it must greatly facilitate his progress. By means of his new terms, Mr. Brown has supplied a kind of aid in the study of English Grammar, analogous to that which the chemical nomenclature affords in the study of chemistry.

JOSEPH HALE ABBOT.

Boston, November 1, 1841.

The subscribers have attended a course of lectures, given by Mr. James Brown, on his new theory of English Syntax. They feel confident that his system is clear and exact, suited both to the genius of the language, and the powers of the juvenile mind. The whole theory seems peculiarly valuable not only for its tendency to attract and secure the attention of the learner, and to keep his judgment in constant exercise, but for its adaptation, both in principle and nomenclature, to the development of the true science of English Grammar.

BARNUM FIELD. Grammar Master in the Franklin School. CORNELIUS WALKER. Grammar Master in the Wells School. FREDERIC CRAFTS, Grammar Master in the Hawes School. WILLIAM D. SWAN, Grammar Master in the Mayhew School. ABNER FORBES, Grammar Master in the Smith School. WILLIAM RUSSELL,

Ed. Am. Jour. Education, (First Series.)

Boston. Nov. 1. 1841.

Franklin School, Boston. Oct. 2d, 1841.

REV. OTIS A. SKINNER:

Dear Sir:—The undersigned, members of the highest division of the first class in the Franklin School, having attended, with much pleasure and advantage, for two months, on Mr. James Brown's instructions in "English Syntax," most respectfully request that we and our associates, may be allowed to pursue this most interesting study under our master. Be assured, kind sir, if we can be thus favored through your influence, we shall feel our many obligations greatly increased, and will endeavor to manifest our gratitude by our constant attention and application to all our studies, and by our unceasing exertions in every way, to advance the reputation of our highly favored school.

We are yours, with much esteem,

JOSEPH H. WHEELOCK, BENJAMIN SMITH, JOHN A. LAMSON, Jr., A. HAVEN, S. MILLARD, S. H. CLAPP, SAMUEL L. WHEELER, JAMES B. PEARSON, CHARLES JOHNSON, H. H. COPELAND, F. E. ARCHIBALD, JAMES PERKINS, GEORGE H. CRAM,

CAROLINE H. PITTS,
MARY M. DINGLEY,
SARAH A. CHEEVER,
ESTHER M. SIMONDS,
MARY F. BLODGET,
LUCY H. HOWE,
SARAH E. MANSUR,
HANNAH S. PARMELEE,
MARY J. LEACH,
L. S. E. FROTHINGHAM,
EMILY G. PRATT,
MARY A. WHEELER,
MARIA D. FAXON,
ABBY K. SWEETSER.

The following letter is from H. M'Murtrie, M. D., &c., Professor of Special Physics, Central High School, Philadelphia.

Mr. James Brown:

Sir:—The brevity of my answer to your note of the 30th ultimo, may be contrary to your expectations. But it does not require many words to say that your "System of English Syntax," is not only a good one, but the only good one which I have ever examined. Your premises are axioms; and your consequences strict inductions.

That the introduction of your system will be attended with delay, admits of little doubt. But "truth is mighty and will prevail." Not a physician in Europe, who was forty years of age when Hervey discovered the circulation of the blood, ever adopted his theory, though it was based upon demonstration. Now, no man has a doubt on the subject. Such may be the fate of your theory of English Syntax.

H. M'MURTRIE.

PHILADELPHIA, JUNE 3d, 1841.

It may be considered superfluous for me to say anything in favor of a system of English Syntax, which has received the approbation

of some of the most learned and experienced literary men in our country; but having had practical demonstration of its superiority to the old system of Murray and others, I feel constrained by a sense of justice to contribute my feeble aid to have it introduced I am persuaded that the new nomenclature is more readily understood, more easily retained, and more brief than the old. 1 know of no valid objection to the entire system. It is a system which induces a habit of thought and reflection, gives vigor to the intellectual faculties, and brings the whole mind to bear upon the science of language, so that, without the labor of memorizing a single line, the pupil may be brought to comprehend the subject in a much less time than is required to go through the ordinary process, with the old system, and which after it is done, leaves the mind in a bewildered maze, liable to all the fluctuations, to which the old theory has subjected the language. The various parts of which it is composed are so beautifully arranged and illustrated, so scientifically developed and demonstrated, and so accurately determined, that the person who has properly applied himself to it, is perfectly satisfied that he has built upon an indestructible basis.

I consider Syn-del-col-ogy, the Third Part of this new theory, invaluable. It cannot fail, I think, to be properly appreciated by

an intelligent community.

I hope his system, entire, may be speedily adopted, that we may not be under the necessity of teaching error.

J. L. RHEES, Principal of the Model Public School.

PHILADELPHIA, JUNE, 14th, 1841.

We the undersigned, pupils in the Model School, having been favored with an opportunity of receiving instruction from Mr. Brown in his system of English Syntax, feel confident that we have acquired more actual knowledge of the syntax of our language in the few lessons which we have received under him, than we had acquired by our long attention to the old system. We find no difficulty in understanding and remembering the new names, and would greatly prefer the method pursued by Mr. Brown to the dry, and difficult task of memorizing what we cannot understand, and to which we have had heretofore to submit.

WILLIAM STEVENS, GEORGE B. KEEN, JOHN F. HANSELL, JOHN CRAWFORD, H. AGNEW, CHARLES B. KEEN, JOSEPH HOUGH, JOHN AGNEW, JOSEPH LUTZ, H. D. LADD, THOMAS W. MARTIN, RICHARD PARKER,

T. J. CLARK,
W. P. HENRY,
CHARLES P. KITE,
ARTHUR E. MURPHY,
JACOB J. UBER,
JOHN M'QUILLEN,
A. J. WHITE,
JOHN C. SPRINGER,
CHARLES W. OURT,
HENRY M'KAY,
A. B. STEEL.

PREFACE.

Even a superficial observer of human affairs must be satisfied that the ease, accuracy, despatch and safety with which the transactions of life are conducted, depend much upon the degree of skill which men possess in the use of language. Who has not found that many of the difficulties which distract society, by setting member against member, arise from a want of that skill in language, which is necessary to define the conditions of those transactions that lie treasured up in words? It becomes every man, and woman, therefore, to understand, critically, the language of their own country—and, as an incentive to that careful attention which is necessary to such an understanding, let each one reflect upon the advantages of being able to use this instrument with ease, propriety, and despatch.

In the business of life, language is invaluable; how important, then, is a correct knowledge of it. In social intercourse, language is dear to all; how desirable, then, is that skill which enables one to use it with all the ease with which he can move the fingers of his hands. In the higher walks of life, language holds an elevated rank; how important, then, to the lady, and gentleman, is a refined acquaintance with it. And to parents, who should ever superintend the education of their children, a philosophic knowledge of language, is a blessing indeed.

Nor is it of little importance to this nation, that her youth should be early and thoroughly instructed in the principles of the English tongue. Too little stress is laid upon the education of her children. Youth is the progressive state of both mind, and body; and, if either is neglected here, it never attains that height in excellence

to which our species are capable of ascending. The proper nourishment for both, while in this state, is generous, and constant action; and, in exact proportion to the use of this, will be the strength of the body, and the capability of the soul. Children, as such, are passed by as of no real value to a nation; the fact that from these young saplings are soon to be selected the pillars of the country, is rarely considered in its proper light, even by the American community.

Youth is the season designed by nature for the formation of the mind—the expansion of the soul. But man, mistaken man, has contradicted this, and thus brought himself to a state so feeble that he can hardly secure his rights, or enjoy his freedom! It is not pretended that American children are deprived of schools; but it is verily believed that they nearly waste their precious childhood by a false system of teaching. Is it too late for reform? If not, let it be commenced in the primary schools—let the language be understood by the teachers, and by them thoroughly taught to their pupils. Let the institutions in which youth complete their education, give attention to their own tongue: too much time is devoted to other language; or this republic is of short duration. Even the constitution of the United States cannot be understood by two impartial statesmen in the same way.

To the man of circumscribed views, innovation seems to imply a contempt for all former systems, and a total want of respect for their authors. But he who has seen the clouds of literary night dissipate before the sun of improvement, the region of science grow lighter and lighter, and the horizon of truth extend from time to time, by repeated changes, will soon overcome his attachment to absurd forms, and gladly promote that species of innovation, which tends to build systems upon truth, and philosophy.

The author of this work respects the various systems of English Grammar: he regards them as so many stepping-stones by which the science has been brought to its present height of excellence. He respects their authors as men, and especially, as the founders of so grand a commencement. He respects the memory of Mr. Murray for the good he has done in the republic of letters. So far from holding his shade in contempt, or his work in derision, he would fire his system with the sparks struck from the collision of its conflicting principles; he would deposit its ashes in a golden urn, and preserve them as a memento of its worth.

The American Grammar, he is not insensible will oppose the *wisdom* of the learned, and the practice of years. But it should be remembered that, systems, the growth of ages, have been overturned, and that principles, gray with centuries, have been found a delusive chimera. *All* that relates to man, is matter of progression; we see the commencement of Christianity in mere rituals, and symbols; we find its perfection in Calvary's Crimsoned Top.

Are you ready to reject this work because you have been brought up at the feet of Murray? remember him who was brought up at those of Gamaliel; listen to he cry of the Christians, and be reminded of Paul's journey to Damascus: education had drawn a film over his eyes; and a miracle was necessary to restore his sight.

From the dictatorial attitude of the English literati, this production may seem an infringement on the rights which they have so long claimed; and which this country has too long granted. It is remarked by European writers, that English literature should be a model for the literati in America, until this country produces a Newton, an Addison, &c. We confess a deep regard for the shades of these illustrious men: but we would sooner build sepulchres to England's ancient prophets, than believe in her living ones. Where can stronger claims be laid to philological legislation, than in a country distinguished for freedom and power of speech?

In the British system of Grammar, the sense is either lost by the use of improper terms, or enveloped in arbitrary rules, definitions, and exceptions. Indeed, the whole system resembles a machine

hastily contrived, possessing no grand movements; too complicated, too feeble in most of its parts, and, in general, acting upon wrong principles. The author of this work, therefore, after mature examination of the European, has ventured to introduce NEW MATERIALS, and NEW PRINCIPLES; and, to complete the remedy, he has extended his system to the relation of one assemblage of words to another assemblage. This work, therefore, is not only made a means for teaching the mere childlike relation of one word to another word, but an instrument for presenting that manly, mental, subtle coincidence, vibrating between the relative groups of the words which compose the sentence. This part of the American System is called mono-Logy, and treats of words in their collective action, their collective bearing, and in their collective-import—and, while it may be clearly comprehended even by the minds of children, it is not unworthy the close attention of men, of scholars, of philosophers. Monology consists in dividing a sentence into portions, or groups, ascertaining their true constructive relation, learning their exact significant characters, and referring the inferior portions to their respective superiors. This exercise urges the pupil to trace out the precise connection of the monos, by following the filaments-which produce it; and thus fits him to discern the exact meaning of any writer whose language he may read. It prepares the pupil to read with an understanding which renders study easy, delightful, and profitable to him. Monology gives the pupil such a knowledge of language as qualifies him to acquire the other branches of education with an expedition, ease, and satisfaction, which render study advantageous, and pleasing. Made familiar with this process, the pupil's mind kindles into fervor; and he pursues his study as much for the pleasure of the exercise as for the advantage of knowledge. And, whether his eye is turned to the sign of the type, or his ear directed to the language of the tongue, he seizes the period with animation, moves along the constructive fibres which extend from portion to portion, works his passage through the entire sentence,

and comes out with everything which philosophy can glean or acuteness discern.

The author of this work is far from desiring to exhibit a mere independence of mind in the rejection of the British system of English Philology. Nor does he mention the excellence of the American Syntax to institute an invidious comparison between the two—he does it to prevent an identity with those essays which have appeared within a few years, under the pretensions of improving the method of presenting the erroneous principles upon which the system of Murray has been founded. It differs much from all others:

The American Syntax is a laconic system of English Philology, founded upon principles entirely new, and highly important. It settles all points contested among teachers—resolves all the difficulties of the pupil, and relieves the mind of all its grammatical scruples. It sets aside all other systems—exposes their defects, demonstrates the little use of attending to them, and presents to the pupil, the unerring, and only way to the structure of the English language. It urges the youthful mind to invention, and thought; it undeceives the most accomplished Grammarian, and instructs the most profound Philologist: and it is, in a variety of ways, and cases, the clergyman's guide in scriptural exposition, the lawyer's interpreter in juridical discussion, and the magistrate's confirmation in legal decision.

Language is an emanation from God. It is the medium of communication from one finite mind to another, and a means of intercourse between man, and his Maker. In construction, it is ingenious; in purpose, noble; and in application to thought, wonderful. As a gift, it claims our gratitude; as a science, it demands our highest attention; and, as a means of mental intercourse, it excites our admiration, and astonishment.

Language is the mind's hand; and, like that of the body, is employed by many who are ignorant of its beautiful symmetry. But they that use it without understanding its principles, lose as much

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as those who strengthen their bodies with food which they do not relish. In tracing this hand through all its changes, and modifications, in understanding their causes, and effects, and in seeing it follow the discursive part of the mind, fasten upon its curiously formed notions, and reach them to others, we are led to look for its Origin.

It has long been a contested point whether language is a divine revelation, or a human production. But, when we trace it from cause to effect, we see more than HUMAN agency. Man consists of two parts—a body, and a mind; this is journeying through life in Thus the mind becomes a passenger; the body his chariot; ideas his baggage; the earth his inn; hope his food; and another world his destination. And such is the relation between the passengers while on the way, that they are compelled to interchange their ideas. For this purpose, either God has furnished them with language, a ready means for this exchange, or the PASSENGERS THEMSELVES have made this medium. When we reflect upon the passenger's connection with his chariot; when we see him drawing to himself, through organic avenues, the various objects which constantly surround it, we feel that this work is above man; but, when we behold him ANALYZING these objects, forming correct notions of their component parts, and, with vocal organs attached to his vehicle, converting the air into sounds for the communication of those notions, we are ready to exclaim—the Former of the passenger is the Author of his language!

ADVERTISEMENT.

med but all the large

This theory of English Syntax is a new science; and, as there are no words already in use, expressive of the principles on which it is founded, the new nomenclature is the offspring of necessity. No wish to become unique, has led to the introduction of this novelty in technology. This theory not only takes a new view, but a deeper, and a broader range of the constructive principles of our phrenod than the old British system. And, to enable the student to follow this range of thought through all its novelty, depth and extent, he must be led by a full, descriptive nomenclature. Besides, as a large portion of this new theory has neither been published, nor known by the old school grammarians, all must admit the necessity of a new nomenclature for this portion: and, when it is considered that the new names which this accession to English grammar, demands, are just as applicable to that portion of the new theory, which is a substitute for the old system, as they are to that part which is an addition to the old, none will think it inexpedient to employ the new names in both parts of the new system. In my Exegesis, I have attempted to demonstrate the utter inapplicability of the old technology; and, in this work, I have furnished remedial terms; and, should the world think proper to apply them for the cure of those diseased ones which I have shown to be too feeble to bear their own weight, it is hoped that the cause of truth will have no reason to complain, and that the youth of our country will have much reason to rejoice.

I have no wish, however, to discard at once the old names. I am inclined to the opinion that an immediate rejection of these technicals from their accustomed sphere of action in the expression of grammatic thought, would be attended with some inconvenience. My view of the subject is that, if the substitutes which I have provided,

are better than the old ones of which I have complained, they may be used in connection with the old, till the world shall have become familiar with them, and then take the place of which the old ones now have the sole occupancy. Hence I have so connected the old terms with the new, that the pupil taught by this theory, becomes familiar with the old names of the nine parts of speech.

The introduction of new names is a work in which every generation has been engaged. Within a few years, chemistry has been greatly simplified, and beautified by a new nomenclature. "Within fifty years," says Dr. Webster, "thousands of new words have been added to our language; and a complete revolution has been effected in

almost every physical science.

"Terms in the arts and sciences—of these some thousands have been added to our language within the last fifty years, of which a small number only have found their way into any dictionary." "The exact number of these terms now introduced for the first time into a dictionary, is not known." "It cannot, however, be much short of four thousand." "Among them are some of the most common words in the language, such as oxyd, muriate, sulphate, sulphuric, nitric, azote, phosphorus, planetarium, polarize, &c." "Since the time of Johnson, a complete revolution has taken place in almost every branch of physical science." "New departments have been created, new principles developed, new modes of classification and description adopted."—Advertisement to Dictionary.

A BRIEF CONTRAST OF THE TWO SYSTEMS.

1. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it is founded upon principles which belong to grammar, instead of, as is the old, upon principles which belong to things. Or, in other words,

The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it is founded upon syntax principles instead of diction-

ary, or significant ones, as is the old.

2. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as its definitions, and rules are true, and consistent, instead of, as are those of the old system, false, and conflicting.

3. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as its nomenclature is appropriate, laconic, and easy of comprehension, and of retention, instead of inappropriate, vague, prolix, and difficult of comprehension, and hard of retention, as is that of the old system.

4. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it is a full expression of the entire grammar of the English language, and not a partial development of a mere part of the syntax of this language, as is the old system.

5. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it may be acquired without the slavish task of memo-

rizing.

6. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch

as it is taught through the medium of the eye.

7. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it may be acquired by adults without even the least aid

from *living* teachers.

8. The method of learning by the American System differs from that of learning by the old, inasmuch as it makes the pupil master of printed speech, which places him on all the roads to knowledge.

Note. The practice of teaching, viva voce, or by lectures, may be carried too far; for the habit of acquiring knowledge from the voice does not favor the cultivation of a skill to acquire it from

books. It is so very important that pupils should habituate themselves to the acquiring of ideas from print, that the art of teaching properly, lies, in a great degree, in giving them command over printed speech. It is upon printed signs that they are to depend in the absence of living teachers. Memorizing lessons, and attending lectures, are, when carried as far as they are at the present day, pernicious to the cause of science, and unfavorable to the growth of the human mind. Make youth masters of printed speech, and you put them on all the roads to knowledge.

9. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as no one can teach from it without understanding it; for the act of teaching by it is not a process of mere memorizing from the book, and reciting to the teacher!

10. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it throws nearly all the labor upon the *student*, by enabling him to understand the subject with very little

aid from his teacher.

11. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it employs the *perceptive* powers instead of the mere *memorizing* faculty of the learner.

12. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it enables the pupil to parse all those constructions which are called by the old system, anomalous!

13. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as it begets a love for, instead of a dislike to, the

study of grammar.

14. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as its principles are made lasting from their connexion with the *judgment*, and not *transient* from a mere connexion with the *memory*, as are those of the old system.

15. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as the old employs ninety-three technical terms while the American employs but forty-four! (See the

Nomenclatural Concordance, in the Syntascope.)

16. The American System differs from the old, inasmuch as its technicals can be explained by the teacher, and understood by the pupil, while the old system's technicals can neither be explained, nor understood, even by the most profound philologist.

LESSON I.

It is usual, though not natural, to place the interrogatories after the text from which the pupil derives his answers. I have ventured to adopt the natural method. The pupil should first examine the questions which precede the text. This will inform him to what parts of the text he should give his close attention.

Questions.—1. What is the etymology of dei-cology?

2. What is the meaning of deikos?

3. What is the meaning of logos?

4. What is the meaning of ep-e-dei-cology?

5. Can you give the etymology, that is, the true original words, of *phrenod?*

6. What is the meaning of phrenod?

7. What is the meaning of phren, and of odos?
8. Will you give the etymology of phrenody?

9. What is the etymology of syntax?

10. What is the meaning of sun, and of tasso?

11. What is the meaning of syntax?

12. What is the etymology of monology?

13. What is the meaning of monos?

14. What is the meaning of monology?

Syntax signifies the putting of words into proper forms, and into proper places.

THE TEXT.

REMARK.

As nothing is better calculated to improve the mind in the science of speech than etymological analysis, I have made such a display of the original words from which the technicals of this system have been derived, as will enable him to become familiar with the character of each new word from an examination of the Greek elements out of which it has been formed.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

ORIGINAL WO	RDS.	MEANING.			ANGLICISED.
Phren,	•	the mind,	•	•	phren-
O-dos,	•	a medium,	•	1- 200	 od.

Phren-od

signifies the highway over which mind travels to mind; the medium through which mind is communicated to mind.—(Exegesis, p. 1, ch. 1.)

Phren-od, the mind's communicating medium, phrenod-Y, the science, or art of, y.

Phren-o-dy

is the science of phrenods.—(Exegesis, p. 1, ch. 1.)

Ep-os,	a word,		ep-e-
Dei-kos,	to show, to signify,	 •	dei-c-
Logos,	doctrine, principle,		ology.

Ep-e-dei-cology

is that part of phrenody, which respects the signification of words individually taken.—(See Syn-dei-col-o-gy, and Abdiction.)

Sun,	•	•	together,	•:		syn-
Tasso,			to put in order,	•		tax.

Syn-tax

is that part of phrenody, which comprises the constructive principles of phrenods.

Etymon,	•	a true	origin	nal,	•	•	etymo-
Logos,		word,		•	•	• 17	logy.

Et-y-mol-o-gy

signifies the true original word, or words from which another word is formed; as, *verbum* is the true original word of *verb*.

LESSON II.

QUESTIONS.—1. What is the etymology, and meaning of gno-mod?

2. Give the etymology, and meaning of gno-me-ol-

o-gy?

3. Give the etymology, and meaning of cordiction?
4. Of how many kinds of diction does this lesson

speak?

5. How many cordictions are there?

6. What does ab mean? What does con signify? Ab, from, and con, together.

7. What is a subfirmation?

8. What does sub mean? Inferior in degree, less.

9. Will you give the etymology, and meaning of den-

drology?

10. What sentence is given in illustration of the dendrology of words? that is, of the trunk, and branch relation of words?

11. Which is the trunk assemblage?

12. Which is the trunk word in the trunk assemblage?

13. Repeat the branch words in the trunk assemblage.

14. Give the etymology, and meaning of cratology.

15. What is the meaning of morpheology?

16. What is the etymology of syncla-deology? What is its meaning?

17. What is the etymology, and meaning of po-e-

ol-o-gy?

18. What is the etymology, and meaning of syn-dei-cology?—(See Ep-e-dei-cology, and Condiction.)

THE TEXT.

Gno-me, a gnomod, a sentence, gnom-O-dos, a medium, a way, . . . od.

Gno-mod

signifies the means, the medium through which we express a cordictive thought. (See *Cordiction*, and *Sentensic*.)

ORIGINAL WORDS. MEANING. ANGLICISED. Gno-me, a gnomod, a sentence, . gnome-Lo-gos. doctrine, principle, . . ology.

Gno-me-ol-o-gy

means the doctrine of a gnomod. (Syntascope, p. 216.) (PART I. p. 34.)

the heart, Cor. speech, . Dictio, diction.

Cor-diction

means that attribute of an assemblage of words, which renders it a gnomod, or sentence. (Exegesis, pp. 109, 10, 11, and 12. Syntascope, pp. 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22.)

DICTION.

Diction is the expression of thoughts.

There is a difference between the diction of words, and

the signification of words.

Dei-cology respects the mere power of a word to raise an idea in the mind; but diction respects the exertion of that power in the act of raising an idea in the mind. For instance, a certain word has the significant power to raise a particular idea in the mind; but then this power is not exerted in the raising of this idea, till the certain word which has this power, is written, or spoken. Let this be illustrated in the expression of some word which you have not in your mind at this moment: for instance, ear.

This word had the power of raising in your mind, the idea of the organ of hearing, before you saw the wordbut it did not exert this power till you saw the word. The power itself is called dei-cology; but the exertion of

the power is denominated diction.

Diction is the expression of thoughts. Or,

DICTION is the expression of separate thoughts, and connected thoughts, and finally of information, intelligence.

There are three kinds of diction; namely,

1. Abdiction,

2. Condiction, and

3. Cordiction.

1. Abdiction is that act of words, which presents thoughts as separate; as pen, moon, ice, new, reads, walks, in, at, to.

2. Condiction is that act of words, which presents thoughts as connected; as new pen, in ice, moon light

night, at church.

The cordiction is the abstract affirmation, the abstract interrogation, the abstract command, the abstract petition, or the abstract subfirmation, expressed in the assemblage of words.

It is nine. Affirmative
Is it nine? Interrogative
Go thou. Imperative
Forgive our sins, Petitionative
when we repent. Subfirmative

What is the difference between affirmation, and subfirmation?

1. An affirmation is the highest degree of verbal assurance, which language can give; as, This tree is

very high.

2. A subfirmation is a less degree of verbal assurance than that which is given by affirmation; as, If this tree is very high. (Part I. p. 37.)

ORIGINAL WORDS.	MEANING.		ANGLICIS			
	alone, by itself, .	10		mono-		
Logos, .	doctrine, principles,			logy.		

Mo-nol-o-gy

respects the principles on which a sentence is divided into monos.

A mono is any portion of a sentence, which can be taken by itself. (Part I. p. 45.)

Dendros, . trunk with its branches, . dendro-Logos, . word, logy.

Den-drol-o-gy

signifies the trunk, and the branch relation of words. This relation exists between two assemblages of words,

as well as between two individual words; as, [A cer-

tain centurion's servant was sick (unto death.)

"A certain centurion's servant was sick" is the trunk of the sentence; and "unto death" is the branch. Again—A, certain, centurion's, was, and sick are branch words of the trunk assemblage; and servant is the trunk word upon which these branch words depend. In the branch assemblage, unto death, unto is the branch, and death is the trunk word.

Now, as dendros signifies the trunk with its branches, and the branches with their trunk, it is here employed to denote the trunk and branch relation of words.

ORIGINAL WORDS.	MEANING.			ANGLICISED.
Cra-tos, . Lo-gos, .	power, word,	D-0		crato- logy.

Cra-tol-ogy

respects the power of some words, and the want of it in others, to aid in producing a sentence. (Part II. p. 35. Syntascope, p. 118. Exegesis, p. 108.)

The simple power, and the simple want of the power, to aid in the production of a cordiction, the true sentence characteristic, the real gnomodic trait by which a sentence can be distinguished from any insentensic assemblage of words, is called cratology.

Poi-eo,	•	to make, form, c	reate,		poe-
Lo-gos,		word,	• 1.	,	 ology.

Po-e-ol-o-gy

means the proper formation of words from sounds, and letters.

Sem-æ-nos, to designate, to distinguish, . semen-Lo-gos, . doctrine, principle, . . ology.

Sem-e-nol-o-gy

means the principles on which words designate those ideas to which the mere dictionary import conveys no allusion; as, time, number, gender, &c. (PART II. p. 55.—Syntascope, pp. 139, 225.)

ORIGINAL WORDS.	MEANING.			A	NGLICISED.
Sun,	with, or together,		8.		syn-
Kla-dos, .		•		•	cla-de-
Lo-gos, .	doctrine, principle,	•	•		ology.

Syn-cla-de-ol-o-gy

means the principles of that classification of clades, which is founded upon their frame-work connection with other words. (Part II. p. 44. Syntascope, pp. 122, 124.)

Mor-phe,	form,	-	·		morphe-
Lo-gos,	word,		. •	111	ology.

Mor-phe-ol-o-gy

respects the various forms into which words are put when applied to things, in the formation of sentences; also the different forms into which sentences themselves are thrown by reason of the positions of their words, and monos. (Syntax, p. 177. Syntascope, p. 226.)

A mono is that number of words which can be taken alone; as, [John went] (into the field.)

Sun, .	 with, or together,		7.0	•	syn-
Dei-kos,	to show, to signify,	•	•		dei-c-
Lo-gos,	doctrine, principle,			•	ology.

Syn-dei-col-o-gy

respects the exact shades of thought which words express from being taken, not separately, but together. (See Condiction.)

"He lives by rule." The ep-e-dei-col-o-gy of the word, rule, and the syn-dei-col-o-gy of the mono, "by rule," are very different. The idea which "rule," when taken alone, raises in the mind, is that of a guide in action. But the idea which the mono, "by rule," raises in the mind, is that of conformity to. Hence the idea of conformity to, is the result of taking the two words together. This idea of conformity to, is syn-dei-col-o-gy.

1-32-01

A LANGUAGE, OR A PHRENOD.

I. Every nation has found it important to have a phrenod composed of *sounds*, and a phrenod composed of *let*ters. Hence, each nation has two phrenods; viz. a PHO-NOD, and an ALPHOD.

(Phone, a voice, and odos, a medium. Alpha, a letter,

and odos, a means.)

II. The distinctive name of a phrenod, is generally formed from the national appellation of the people who use the phrenod. Hence, the *French* phrenod, the *Greek* phrenod, the *English* phrenod, &c.

PHRENODY, OR PHILOLOGY.

PHRENODY is the science of phrenods. English phrenody is the science of the English phrenod.

DIVISION OF PHRENODY.

PHRENODY is divided into two parts; namely,

1. SYNTAX, and

2. EP-E-DEI-COL-OGY.

1. Syntax is that part of phrenody, which comprises the constructive principles of phrenods.

2. EP-E-DEI-COLOGY is that part of phrenody, which comprises the significant principles of *individual* words.

(Ep-e-dei-cology is taught by a dictionary.)

ENGLISH SYNTAX.

ENGLISH SYNTAX is that part of English phrenody, which consists of the constructive principles of the English phrenod. (See *Exegesis*, pp. 15, 19, 29.)

1. DIVISION OF SYNTAX.

English Syntax is divided into nine parts; namely,

- 1. GNO-ME-OL-O-GY.
- 2. Mo-nol-o-gy,
- 3. Den-drol-o-gy.
- 4. Cra-tol-o-gy,
- 5. SYN-CLA-DE-OL-O-GY,
- 6. Sem-e-nol-o-gy,
 7. Mor-phe-ol-o-gy,
 - 8. Po-E-oL-o-GY.
 - 9. Syn-dei-col-o-gy.

1. Gno-me-ol-o-gy, Mo-nol-o-gy, and Den-drol-o-gy belong to PART I.

2. Cra-tol-o-gy, Sem-e-nol-o-gy, Syn-cla-de-ol-o-gy,

Mor-phe-ol-o-gy, and Po-e-ol-o-gy to PART II.

3. And Syn-dei-col-o-gy, to PART III.

LESSON III.

QUESTIONS.—1. In how many methods may the investigation of a science be conducted?

2. What is the etymology of synthetic?

(It is from the Greek, sun, with, and tithemi, to put. The word means, then, to put parts together.)

3. What is the etymology of analytic?

(It is from the Greek, ana, again, and luo, to melt, to dissolve. Analytic, then, respects the process of reducing a compound into its elements again.)

4. At what part would the synthetic method of study-

ing English Syntax, lead you to begin?

5. In studying this science analytically, at what part would you begin?

6. Is the process of forming letters into syllables ana-

lytic, or synthetic?

7. In what state must words be in order to make them available in the communication of our ideas?

8. Why should the pupil begin his study of language at the sentence, and not at the letters?

9. What does the word, cordiction, mean?

10. What attributes are meant by the words, "distinctive attributes?"

11. Whence the propriety of calling these distinctive attributes cordictions?

12. What is the etymology of cordiction?

13. Can an assemblage of words be a sentence, which has not one of these vital properties?

14. Why not?

- 15. What are the purposes which men have in forming sentences?
 - 16. Is "unto the mount," a sentence?

17. Why not?

18. Is "they went," a sentence?

19. Why?

20. What is the cordiction of the following sentence: "Are they ill?"

21. What is a curious fact?

22. It is a curious fact to find what?

23. We examine our dictionaries in vain to find what?

24. What are these five ideas which the dictionary import, the ep-e-dei-co-logical import of words, is unable even to touch?

25. What has every word which has an affirmative power, besides its affirmative power?

26. The dictionary does not define the word, wrote, and

smote as meaning what?

27. Is the *cordictive* thought which renders an assemblage of words a sentence, expressed by one word?

28. By what means is the cordiction expressed?

- 29. By what means is an affirmation, an interrogation, a subfirmation, a command, and a petition expressed?
- 30. What is the difference between an affirmation, and a subfirmation?
 - 31. To affirm is what?

32. To subfirm is what?

33. From what is the word, affirmation, constructed?

34. Hence the sentence which is so, and so, does what?

35. From what is subfirmation made?

36. What is the cordiction which renders the following assemblage of words, a sentence: If it should be a fine day?

37. The affirmations are what?

38. The subfirmations are what?

39. The cordictive words in the affirmations, are what?

40. And you see what?

- 41. And shall declares what?
 42. What does does declare?
- 43. The thing to be made firm in the third gnomod, is what?

44. And you see what?

- 45. In the first sentence the thing to be rendered firm, is what?
- 46. The thing in the second gnomod, to be rendered firm, is what?

47. And does declares what?

48. The thing to be made firm in the third gnomod, is what?

49. How does is speak?

50. Let us now consider what?

51. In the first, the mind is to be rendered firm respecting what?

52. Look at what—and see what?

53. Is, then, speaks with what?

54. With an assurance which is less than what?

56. If the assemblage of words, "if it is a fine day," is named in reference to what?

57. It must be called what?

58. "President is," is the cordictive portion of what?

59. And it is for you to ascertain what?

60. Does is say what? 61. Is what declared?

62. Having made these remarks it may be well to give what?

63. What is a subfirmation?

74. Have you examined with care the specimen of giving the gnomeology of an assemblage of words?

75. Does the specimen begin with is, or with α ?

N. B. The pupil should not be allowed to vary from the specimen, in the least thing. Nor should he have anything but his book in his hands while he is giving the gnomeology of the exercises which are under the specimen.

THE TEXT.

INTRODUCTION TO LESSON I.

THERE are two methods in which the investigation of any science may be conducted, viz., the analytic, and the synthetic. The analytic traces the whole subject down into its elements; but the synthetic traces all the elements up into the subject. In the development of grammar, we may take the synthetic, and trace letters into syllables, syllables into words, and words into sentences. Or we may take the analytic, and trace a sentence into words, words into syllables, and syllables into letters. But, as the formation of sentences is the ultimate object for which letters, syllables, and words are employed, it seems guite natural to commence the study of syntax at the sentence. Besides, as a sentence is the only state in which language can be employed as the medium through which our thoughts can be communicated to each other, the pupil should know what a sentence is, before he attempts to acquire a minute knowledge of the various elements of which it is composed. (See English Syntascope, pp. 8 and 9.) The definitions which grammarians, both in America, and Great Britain, have given of a gnomod, or sentence, are unsound in the extreme. I have inserted many of these definitions in "THE EXEGESIS," page 109, where I have attempted an exposition of their unsoundness.

PART I.

CHAPTER I.

GNOMEOLOGY.

Gnomeology is that part of syntax which consists of the doctrine of a gnomod, or sentence. (Syntascope, pages 10, 216.) (See Exegesis, page 8. Examine from "All speech must be formed in the following manner.")

The word doctrine, is made from doceo, to teach, to present; and signifies that thing, fact, or principle, which

is taught, or presented. The doctrine of the universe is the principles which the universe teaches, or presents to the mind. The doctrine of a passage of scripture is that principle which the passage teaches, or presents. Now there are various kinds of doctrines; there are theological doctrines, metaphysical doctrines, syntax doctrines, &c. The principles which theology teaches, are theological doctrines; the principles which nature teaches, or presents, are metaphysical doctrines, and the syntax principles which sentences present, are syntax doctrines. Now, what are the syntax principles which a sentence, properly so called, They are affirmations, interrogations, commands, petitions, and subfirmations. These principles, these things, are not taught, not presented, by individual words—they are taught, presented, to the mind by assemblages of words only. Nor is this all, for the assemblage which presents these things, comprises two words only. Gnomeology, the doctrine of gnomods, is presented by the joint action of two words; as, John went to church with Joseph. That which renders this assemblage of words a gnomod, or sentence, is the doctrine, the affirmation. which is presented in the assemblage, "John went." This affirmation, then, is called gnomeology. That is, the suntax doctrine which these two words by their joint contribution present to the mind of the reader. In this paragraph, or period, there are two other assemblages of words, namely, "to church," and "with Joseph."

These assemblages also present syntax doctrines. But, as the doctrines which these assemblages present do not render them gnomods, sentences, they (the doctrines) are not denominated cordictions. The syntax doctrines of assemblages of words, which do not render the assemblages gnomods, sentences, are called, not cordiction, but condiction. These doctrines are the theme of Syndeicology,

which is presented in Part III.

A Gnomod, or Sentence.

A gnomod, or sentence, is an assemblage of two or more words, which expresses a cordiction; as, 1. It is nine, 2. If it is nine, 3. Is it nine? 4. Go thou to school, 5. Forgive thou their sins.

1. What does the word, cordiction, mean?

Affirmation, interrogation, command, petition, and sub-firmation.

2. Whence the propriety of calling these distinctive attributes cordiction?

From the fact that these five attributes are the *vital* parts of speech, or diction. (*Cor*, the heart, and *dictio*, speech, diction)

3. Can an assemblage of words be a sentence, which has not one of these vital properties?

No.

Why?

Because affirmation, interrogation, and subfirmation of something, or command, and petition to some being, are the only purposes which men have in forming sentences. The assemblage of words, therefore, which does not answer one of these purposes, is not a sentence.

4. Is the following assemblage of words a sentence?—"Unto the mount of Olives."

No.

Why not?

Because it has no cordiction. That is, it does not contain affirmation, interrogation, command, petition, or subfirmation.

5. Is the following assemblage a sentence?—They went.

Yes.

Why?

Because it contains a cordiction.

What is the cordiction which it contains?

Affirmation.

6. What is the cordiction of the following sentence?—Are you well?

The cordiction, or heart of this assemblage of words, is interrogation.

It is a curious fact, that words, by means of their dictionary significations, are competent to express all our ideas but five. Now these five ideas, which the dictionary import of words is unable even to touch, are the five cordictions. And it is curious also to find that men have

supplied this deficiency in individual function, by giving to a certain class of words, a collective power. This endowment consists in a capacity of an assemblage of certain words, to express an affirmation, an interrogation, a command, a petition, and a subfirmation. We examine our dictionary in vain to find a word whose affirmative power is its dictionary signification. Every word which has an affirmative, or any other cordictive power, has also a dictionary signification; as, "Moses smote the rock," "John wrote this letter." The dictionary does not define the words, smote and wrote, as meaning an affirmation, but as denoting certain actions. Hence the affirmative idea which is expressed in the above instances, is the result of the extra significant capacity with which men have endued these, and similar assemblages of words, to enable them to express an affirmation, an interrogation, a command, a petition, and a subfirmation.

What is the difference between affirmation and subfirmation?

1. An affirmation is the highest degree of verbal assurance which language can give; as, This tree is very high.

2. A subfirmation is a less degree of verbal assurance than that which is given by affirmation; as, If this tree is

very high.

To affirm is to give the highest degree of verbal assur-

ance which language can give; as, He returned ill.

The word, affirmation, is constructed from the Latin, firmo, to fix, to establish, to make the mind firm with respect to the thing in question. Hence the sentence which is calculated to make the mind firm with regard to what it, the sentence, presents to the mind, is an affirmation, a firmation; as, It rains, The President is ill.

To subfirm is to give a less degree of verbal assurance than is given by affirming; as, If he returned ill, If it

rains, If the President is ill.

The word, subfirmation, is made from the Latin, sub, under, or inferior in degree, and firmo, to make firm, and means that action of the two cordictive words, which gives less verbal assurance than affirmation gives; as,

1. If it is a fine day, we shall return.

- 2. Joseph does not know whether the President is ill.
- 3. It is said that the President is ill.
- I. The affirmations are,
 - 1. We shall return.
 - 2. Joseph does not know.
 - 3. It is said.
- II. The subfirmations are,
 - 1. If it is a fine day.
 - 2. Whether the President is ill.
 - 3. That the President is ill.

The cordictive words in the affirmations, are, "we shall," "he does," and "it is." And you see that they act with such a degree of force, as gives the mind the highest degree of verbal assurance respecting the things in question. In the first sentence, the thing to be rendered firm, is our return; and shall declares that this shall take place. The thing in the second gnomod, to be rendered firm, is Joseph's want of knowledge respecting the illness of the President; and does declares this want of knowledge to exist.

The thing to be made firm in the third gnomod, is the fact that it is said that the President is ill. And is speaks with perfect assurance upon this point.

Let us now consider the cordictive words in the subfirmations. They are, "it is," "President is," and "President is."

In the first, the mind is to be rendered firm respecting a certain day's being a fine day. And does is declare that this certain day is a fine day? Look at the full expression, and see. It does not. Is, then, speaks with an assurance which is less than that given by affirmation. Hence, if the assemblage of words, "if it is a fine day," is named in reference to the degree of verbal assurance which it gives to the mind, it must be called a subfirmation.

"President is," is the cordictive portion of the words, "whether the President is ill." And it is for you to ascertain whether this cordictive portion does, in fact, give a degree of verbal assurance respecting his being ill, less than that which is given by affirmation. Does is say that

the President is ill? Is it declared that the President is ill? Or is it merely declared that it is said that he is ill?

Having made these remarks. it may be well to give the

following definition of a subfirmation:

A Subfirmation is that establishing action of the cordictive words in a gnomod, which gives less verbal assurance than is given by affirmation; as, When the stage shall have arrived, we shall get some news. ("When the stage shall have arrived.")

SPECIMEN OF GIVING THE GNOMEOLOGY.

"Of Olives," not a sentence, because it contains no cordiction.

"He is in Philadelphia," a sentence, because it contains

a cordiction which is an affirmation.

"Give us this day our daily bread," a sentence, because it contains a cordiction which is a petition.

EXERCISES IN GNOMEOLOGY.

1. Law, in its most comprehensive sense, of action.

2. Law, in its most confined sense, is a rule of human action.

3. Man is a dependent being.

- 4. On the laws of nature, and revelation, depend all human laws.
- 5. The law of nations, is that collection of principles which regulates the intercourse between national communities.

6. The work improperly.

7. Is the work properly done?

8. If John returns to-day.

9. Were any philosophers more eminent than Socrates and Plato?

10. Forgive our sins.

11. Pardon our iniquities.

12. The mind of man not without some food to nourish the activity of its thoughts.

13. My good boy.

14. Do come away, my child. (Petition.)

15. Can the blind see? (Affirmation.)

16. "Have I not seen Jesus Christ, our Lord?"

17. "Doth God pervert judgment?"

18. "Doth the Almighty pervert justice?"

19. Can the flag grow without water? (Affirmation.)

(More exercises under pages 49, 50, 51, 52, 61, 62, 63, 68, 69, 70.)

In giving the gnomeology of the exercises under these pages, take each assemblage of words by itself. The following is a specimen: ("There was a man) (,, sent) (from God) (whose name was John.")

- 1. There was a man, a sentence, because it contains a cordiction which is an affirmation.
- 2. Who was sent, a sentence, because it contains a cordiction which is an affirmation.
- 3. From God, not a sentence, because it contains no cordiction.
- 4. Whose name was John, a sentence, because it contains a cordiction which is an affirmation.

PART II.

MONOLOGY.

LESSON I.

Questions.—1. Can you give the etymology of monology?

2. Into what are sentences divided?

- 3. Have you examined the specimen of monoizing, with care?
- 4. Have you examined the monoizing rules with great care?
- 5. Do you think that you can monoize exactly according to the specimen which you have examined?

6. What is a Mono?

- 7. In what way is a mono illustrated by the author?
- 8. Does the author say anything about the word, solo?
- 9. How many states have monos?

10. Can you give the meaning of ple-nary, imple-nary, broken, and unbroken?

11. By what examples does the author illustrate the

plenary state of a mono?

12. By what example does he illustrate the implenary

state?

13. What monos does he employ to illustrate the broken state, and what one to illustrate the unbroken state?

THE TEXT.

Monos, . alone, by itself, mono.

Mon-o

signifies that which can be taken alone, the least whole which can be taken by itself. Thus, the head of a pin is a mono: the head is a part which has a full, distinctive character, and a distinctive name, independent of the stem. And the stem is a mono, because it also has a full, distinctive character when taken alone, by itself, apart from the head. Each nail on your fingers is a mono, because each has a full, distinctive character, when taken alone. (Monos, alone.)

The word, solo, is applied to a tune, designed for one voice, or for one instrument, because this word is derived from the Latin, solus, which means alone. That is, the tune is called a solo because he that sings it is alone in the act. Now, as a tune is called a solo because he that sings it is alone in the act, so any part, or any assemblage of the gnomod, or sentence, which can stand alone, or which can be taken alone, is called a mono. (Monos, alone.)

A mono is the least whole which can be taken by itself, alone; as, (John,) [art thou well?]—(Syntascope, pp. 28,

217.)

All the words which hold an *individual* frame-work connection with each other, belong to the same mono.

Letters in the formation of a word, are connected with each other individually; as, bad. But when associated,

they become words; and as such, act upon other words in compact, as, bad man. The letters, b, a, d, in forming the word, bad, act and depend upon each other in an individual capacity. But when combined in the word, "bad," their individual action ceases entirely, for it is only their combined mass which acts in the assemblage. In forming words, the letters act individually upon each other, but in forming monos they act collectively. When letters act individually, they produce words; but when they act collectively, they produce monos. Now, as the letters of different words, have no relation with each other as individuals, so the words of different monos as individuals, have no relation with each other. But as the letters of different words, act collectively upon each other in forming a mono, so do the words of the same mono act in concert upon one another in forming a sentence.

For instance: take the three following monos: [And

he began to speak (unto them) (by parables.)

No single word in the last mono has any relation, as an individual, with any word as an individual, in the semimono, to speak.

This will be seen by removing the mono between those

under consideration.

And he began (to speak) by parables unto them.

Further: there is a trunk, and branch relation which words acquire, both as individuals, and as assemblages. This relation is produced by the trunk and branch bearing of words, both as monos, and as individual words.

When one word is connected with another word, the

relation is individual; as, He went.

But when one assemblage of words is connected with another assemblage, the relation is collective; as, [He went] (to the house.)

These two assemblages of words are connected, and this connection is a collective relation. Now as to the house is connected with He went, collectively, so is to con-

nected with *house* individually.

The relation between the two monos is collective. Collective, because the words, He went, together, or in concert, sustain the mono, to the house. But the relation between to, and house, is individual.

The words, to, the, and house, bear a common, a collective relation to He went.

Now was to individually connected with he, or with went, to would become a member of the mono, He went. But experiment will demonstrate, that to bears an individual relation neither to he, nor went: He to went—To went—To he!

It may be well to show that every assemblage of words will not hold a frame-work relation with the mono, He went.

"He went," is all paper white?

In what way is the mono, is all paper white, connected

with the mono, He went?

There is no frame-work relation between these two monos, because there is no sense connection between them. Nor is there any constructive, syntax, individual relation between the words to and he—nor is there any individual relation between to and went. There exists a species of affinity among the individual words of the same mono, and among the monos of the same sentence.

[" He went] (to the house.")

To, the, and house form a new mono in the sentence because they hold an individual relation with each only. There can be no more words in the mono, to the house, because there are no more in the sentence, which have an individual relation with to, the, or house. Had the word, went, however, an individual relation with to, the, or house, went would belong to the mono, to the house.

A Mono.

A mono is an assemblage of words which are individu-

ally connected with each other; as,

["A certain emperor] (of China) (on his accession) (to the throne) (of his ancestors) commanded a general release] (of all those,) (who were confined) (in prison) (for debt.")

In this sentence there are *nine* monos; and, of course, each is made up of words which hold an *individual frame*-

work relation with each other.

As a further illustration of this subject, we will fancy that the entire alphabet is a sentence, and that the following words are monos lying within this alphabetic sentence:

- 1. Ramus,
- 2. Kormos,
- 3. Klados,
- 4. Klonos,
- 5. Syntax,
- 6. Branch,
- 7. Grammar.

AbC pefchijklmnopqrStuv-wxyz.

Now, draw out the word, ramus, by touching, or speaking each letter which this word contains. Ramus.

Draw out the other words in the same way. But perhaps it will be better to repeat the alphabetic sentence, and read the *mono*, *ramus*, once more, leaving the places which the letters in this mono now occupy in the alphabetic period, vacant. Thus:

-b c p e f q h i j k l - n o p q - - t - v w x y z.

ramus.

Let us now draw out the monos which are contained in the following sentence:

"Law, in its most comprehensive sense, is a rule of action."

— in its most comprehensive sense — — of action.

Law is a rule — — — of action.

In its most comprehensive sense.

Divided into monos in the following manner:

[Law (in its most comprehensive sense) is a rule] (of

action.)

Is it asked why are there not more words in the mono, Law is a rule? The answer may be given in the reply to the following question:

Why are there not more letters included in the word

Ramus, than R, a, m, u, and s?

Because R, a, m, u with s spell the entire word. And as R, a, m, u with s, spell the word, ramus, so do Law, is, a with rule, spell the entire mono, "Law is a rule."

As a word is a family of letters, so a mono is a family of words. Hence, constructively, what a letter is to a word, a word is to a mono. A word is a frame-work of letters;

as, R-a-m-u-s: and a mono is a frame-work of words: as, [A Ramus is a branch] (of a tree.)

MONOLOGY.

Monology is the science of dividing a sentence into monos. It is one of the principles of this science that in the process of breaking a gnomod down into monos, no regard should be paid to the position of the words. It is no matter how far the words of the same mono, are placed from each other by the intervention of other words: words belong to the same mono, not because of their local relation, but because of their individual relation. whether the monos which constitute the sentence, [Law is a rule (of action,) (in its most comprehensive sense,) are put together, are placed in an unbroken state, as, [Law is a rule] (of action,) (in its most comprehensive sense,) or whether they are placed in a broken state, as, [Law (in its most comprehensive sense,) is a rule | (of action,) the words which hold an individual frame-work relation, belong to the same mono. Therefore the words, Law, is, a and rule, belong to one mono, whether they are thrown from each other on the paper by the intervention of other words or not.

As a village is divided into distinct families, so is a sentence divided into distinct monos. And, as each family is generally made up of those persons who have an individual kindred in pedigree, or in something else, so each mono is composed of those words which hold an individual relation in frame-work. It matters not, then, where a human being is, whether in a country far from the other members of his family, or by the very fire-side with them, the tie of individual kindredship binds him to this one group of human beings. So it is with words—for they are grouped into monos by their individual constructive affinity, stand they where they may. Hence all the italic words in the following sentence, belong to the same mono:

[The word was made flesh, and dwelt among us, full] of truth, and grace.

In the following, also:

("That, which we for our unworthiness, are

afraid to crave, our prayer is that, God would vouchsafe to grant) for the worthiness of his Son."

(" God would vouchsafe to grant that favor.")

That , which we, for our unworthiness, are afraid to crave, our prayer is that, God, for the worthiness of his Son, would vouchsafe to grant. (6 monos.)

The words of a mono, then, have the same relation with each other, which the component parts of any other frame-work have to one another. Hence, the words of a mono, like the constituent parts of any other frame-work, are all relatives. The parts, or members of the same family, are relatives. The father, and son are relatives. The members of the same family are relatives upon the principle of consanguinity: they are of the same blood. So, too, the parts of a tree are relatives, though not upon the principle of consanguinity. The parts of a tree are relatives upon the principle of construction.

As a mono includes those words only, which have an individual syntax relation with each other, the ability to divide a sentence into monos, must be derived from a knowledge of this *individual constructive* relation. To enable the pupil to acquire this knowledge, I have prepared the following exercises in monoizing. In these, all the words which have the *individual* frame-work relation,

have the same figure over them.

1. "The most powerful motives call for those efforts

3 3 3 3 3 4 4 4 4
which our common country demands of all her children."

Now, the, most, powerful, motives, and call, have an individual frame-work connection; hence these words belong to the same mono. This mono, "The most powerful motives call," is a sort of chain, of which the, most, powerful, motives, and call, are the links. These verbal links are individually connected; hence they belong to the same chain. There are no more links in this chain, because there are no more which hold an individual frame-work connection with any link which now belongs to the chain.

The pupil should now be thoroughly drilled in the following way:

The most powerful motives call.

Teacher. With what word does the hold a syntax connection?

Pupil. With most.

Teacher. Does the make sense with most? Pupil. Why, the makes sense with motives.

Teacher. How do you know?

Pupil. In conjecting the to motives, I find that the makes sense with motives.

Teacher. What do you mean by conjecting words?

Pupil. I mean the reading of those two or those three words together, which have an individual frame-work relation; as, The motives.

Teacher. How do you conject most?

Pupil. Most powerful.

Teacher. How do you conject powerful?

Pupil. Powerful motives.

Teacher. Can you give the conjection of call?

Pupil. Motives call.

Teacher. By what means do you ascertain the true conjective reading of a word?

Pupil. By the sense.

Teacher. Is not the sense, then, the syntax, the grammar?

Pupil. O, no! the sense is the means by which I ascertain the syntax, the connection! The glass through which I see an object, is not the object itself. The connection is one thing; the cause of that connection is another thing; and the means by which that connection

is ascertained, is still another!

Language is a frame-work whose constructive principles are not derived from the sense. Grammar is the mechanism of the language, not the sense which the words of a sentence denote. Hence, he who attempts to make a book to unfold the syntax, the mechanism of any language, should confine himself to constructive principles. To say what a word in any sentence means, is to leave the frame-work, the architecture of the house for its occupants. Bear this in mind: the grammarian is

not to teach the nature of the *liquid*, but to illustrate the construction of the vessel! In other words, it is not the province of the grammarian to describe the fruit, but to teach the frame-work of the basket which contains the fruit.

for those efforts.

Teacher. What is the conjective reading of for?

Pupil. For efforts.

Teacher. Can you give the conjective reading of those?

Pupil. Those efforts.

which our common country demands.

Teacher. Can you give the conjective reading of demands?

Pupil. Which country demands — Or, country demands which.

Teacher. Well, as demands has an individual connection with which, which and demands belong to the same mono, do they not?

Pupil. They do. And I presume that country and

demands belong to the same mono.

Teacher. Why?

Pupil. Because demands and country have an individual connection.

Teacher. Why do our and common belong to the

same mono with country?

Pupil. Because our and common hold an individual frame-work relation with country. This may be seen by conjecting them to country: — Our country, Common country.

of all her children.

Teacher. Do all these words belong to the same mono?

Pupil. They do: they all belong to the same mono, because they have an individual syntax relation with each other.

Teacher. Can you conject of, all, and her?

Pupil. Of children, all children, her children.

DIRECTIONS.—In monoizing the following Exercises, the pupil should be guided by the specimen. He should apply the following principle in the same way in which it is applied in the specimen from which he should not be allowed to deviate in any respect.

Principle.—All the words which have an individual syntax connection with each other, belong to the same mono.

Note.—There is frequently a sense relation between two words between which there is no syntax, no framework, relation; as, There was no white man there.

In sense, no, is a negation upon white; yet, in framework, no is connected with man; as, no man.

SPECIMEN.

They were known on their return.

1. They were known,—one mono.

Principle.—All the words which have an individual syntax connection with each other, belong to the same mono.

2. On their return,—one mono.

Principle.—All the words which have an individual syntax connection with each other, belong to the same mono.

PREPARED EXERCISES IN MONOLOGY.

- 1. Charles saw hats, which he wanted. (2 monos.)
 - 2. John saw the teacher who taught me. (2 monos.)
 - 3. "He that findeth his life shall lose it." (2 monos.)
 - 4. "He that receiveth you, receiveth me." (2 monos.)
 - 5. That book is the one which I read. (2 monos.)
 - 6. "The book which you see, is far off." (2 monos.)
 - 7. How often does one feel the pangs of sin.

- 8. That thing which that man has said, is that thing which that man has said, is that thing which that man should not repeat.
 - 9. The ones which you have, will please me.
- 10. "Then shall the kingdom of heaven, be likened 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 4 unto ten virgins which took their lamps."
- - 12. "When the bell rings, look, out for the cars."
 - 13. "Look ye out for the cars when the bell rings."
- 14. "Those, beautiful, young, fine, green, straight trees

 1 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 4
 grew in that field which you see on the left hand side."
- 15. "An aged beggar who with trembling knees, stood

 4 4 4 5 5 5 6 6 7 7 7 7 8

 at the gate of a portico from which he had been thrust by

 8 8 8 9 9 9 1 1 1

 the insolent domestic who guarded it, struck the prisoner's

 1

 attention."
- 16. "A certain emperor of China, on his accession to $\begin{smallmatrix}4&4&5&5&5&5&1&1&1&1\\the throne of his ancestors, commanded a general release <math>\begin{smallmatrix}6&6&6&6&6&7&7&7&8&8&9&9\\of all those , who were confined in prison for debt."$
 - 17. "Sweet was the sound when oft, at evening's close,

 3 3 4 4 4
 Up yonder hill the village murmur rose."

- 2 2 3 3 18. "The relation of sleep to night appears to have been 4 4 4 expressly intended by our benevolent Creator."
- 1 1 2 2 2 3 3 19. An old clock that had stood for fifty years in a farmer's kitchen without the giving to its owner, of any cause of complaint, early on one summer's morning, before the family was stirring, suddenly stopped.
- 20. "The value of Christian faith may be estimated from the consolations which it affords.
- 21. "Who would look back upon the history of the world with the eye of incredulity, after he having once read it with the eye of faith?"

Now monoize the same exercises without the aid of figures

SAME EXERCISES WITHOUT FIGURES.

- 1. Charles saw hats, which he wanted. (2 monos.)

- 2. John saw the teacher who taught me. (2 monos.)
 3. "He that findeth his life shall lose it." (2 monos.)
 4. "He that receiveth you, receiveth me." (2 monos.)
- 5. That book is the one which I read. (2 monos.)6. The book which you see, is far off, (2 monos.)
- 7. How often does one feel the pangs of sin.
- 8. That thing which that man has said, is that thing which that man should not repeat.
 - 9. The ones which you have, will please me.
 - 10. "Then shall the kingdom of heaven be likened
- unto ten virgins which took their lamps."
- 11. "On the margin of the Connecticut river, which runs near to the college, stood many majestic forest trees which were nourished by a rich soil."

12. "When the bell rings, look, out for the cars."

13. "Look ye out for the cars when the bell rings."

14. "Those beautiful, young, fine, green, straight trees grew in that field which you see on the left hand side."

- 15. "An aged beggar who with trembling knees, stood at the gate of a portico from which he had been thrust by the insolent domestic who guarded it, struck the prisoner's attention."
- 16. "A certain emperor of China, on his accession to the throne of his ancestors, commanded a general release of all those, who were confined in prison for debt."

17. "Sweet was the sound when off, at evening's close,

Up yonder hill the village murmur rose."

18. "The relation of sleep to night appears to have

been expressly intended by our benevolent Creator."

19. An old clock that had stood for fifty years in a farmer's kitchen without the giving to its owner, of any cause of complaint, early on one summer's morning, before the family was stirring, suddenly stopped.

20. "The value of Christian faith may be estimated

from the consolations which it affords.

21. "Who would look back upon the history of the world with the eye of incredulity, after he having once read it with the eye of faith?"

LESSON V.

THE DEM-I-MONO.

QUESTIONS.—1. What is the etymology of dem-i-mono?

2. What is the meaning of dem-i?

3. What is the character of to in the dem-i-mono?

4. How is *dem-i-*mono pronounced?

5. What is a dem-i-mono?

- 6. In what does a dem-i-mono differ from an entire mono?
 - 7. Why is to called a par-a-clade?

8. In what way can you ascertain that the assemblage of words of which to is the first, is the demi-mono?

9. For what purpose is to employed in the demi-mono?

THE TEXT.

The word, dem-i-mono, is made from mono, that which is complete in itself, and dem-i, incomplete, not entire, half.

A Dem-i-mono,

is that assemblage of words, from which to excludes a foundation word, which renders the assemblage but partially complete in its frame-work, or construction; as,

1. To see the sun.

3. To laugh heartily.

2. To walk.

4. To be punished.

In order to complete the frame-work of each of the above instances, it is necessary to mention him who sees the sun, him who walks, and him who laughs, in the same assemblage in which these several acts are named. This, however, cannot be done; the name of the agent cannot be put into the assemblage while to retains its place. We cannot say, to John laugh heartily. If we mention him who laughs, his name must be placed in another assemblage of words; as, [John was heard] (to laugh heartily.)

To is against the introduction of the agent's name. This may be seen from the omission of to: John laughs heartily. To is not only against the introduction of the agent's name; but to is also against a command, and a petition. This may be seen from omitting to in the in-

stances which follow:

1. To see the sun.

2. To walk.

3. To laugh heartily.

4. To forgive our sins.

See the sun.

Walk.

Laugh heartily.

Forgive our sins.

To, then, is employed to prevent a command, and a petition, where gnomaclades, or verbs are used without any wish to command, or petition. As the character of to is that of against, I have denominated it the par-a-clade.

Para, against, and clade, a word which is conjected to

another word, as is a branch to the trunk.

The first word in the *demi-mono*, is to, the clade which is against a command, against a petition, and against the mention of the agent's name in the assemblage of words in which his action is named.

Where unto cannot be substituted for to, the Rule.assemblage of which to is the first word, is a demi-mono; as, to see the sun, John went to the city to see his friends, James is to be here soon. Now, as unto cannot be substituted for to, except in the mono, to the city, it follows that the other assemblages of which to is the first word, are demi-monos.

Select all the demi-monos from the following exercises:

1. They intended to write two letters last week.

2. We desired to find him at home.

3. They intend to return soon.

4. We hope to see all the family happy.

5. He ought to return to see his friends.

6. I am to go to Boston soon to buy goods.

7. He was seen to return on Saturday.

8. They were told to get the horse to go to church.

LESSON VI.

1. Are there any words which cannot be conjected to an individual word?

2. To what can these words be conjected?

3. Can you repeat the words which are conjected to entire monos?

4. When is both conjected to a mono?

- 5. When is not only conjected to a mono?
- 6. When is neither conjected to a mono?
- 7. When is either conjected to a mono?
- 8. When is for conjected to a mono?

- 9. When is however conjected to a mono?
- 10. When is otherwise conjected to a mono?
- 11. When is then conjected to a mono?
- 12. When is thence conjected to a mono?
- 13. When is as-well-as conjected to a mono?
- 14. Is as-much-as ever conjected to a mono?
- 15. Is and with though ever conjected to the same mono?
 - 16. Is and with so ever conjected to the same mono?
 - 17. Is and with yet ever conjected to the same mono?
 - 18. When is since conjected to a mono?
 - 19. Is even ever conjected to a mono?
 - Is ever with so ever conjected to the same mono?
- 20. Is and with therefore ever conjected to the same mono?
 - 21. Is as with also ever conjected to a mono?
 - 22. Is but with though ever conjected to a mono?
- 1. How many of the words which may be conjected to a whole mono, may be conjected to a single word?
 - 2. How many of those words which may be conjected
- to a mono, cannot be conjected to a single word?
- 3. To what is as-well-as conjected when used in the sense of and?
 - 4. To what is both conjected when followed by and?
 - 5. To what is either conjected when followed by or?
- 6. To what is for conjected when it is used in the sense of because?
- 7. To what are hence, then, and thence conjected when they are used in the sense of therefore?
 - 8. To what is not only conjected when followed by but?
 - 9. When is now conjected to a mono?
 - 10. To what is neither conjected, when followed by nor?
- 11. To what is otherwise conjected, when used in the sense of or?
- 12. To what is *provided* conjected, when it is used in the sense of *if*?
 - 13. To what is since conjected, when used much in
- the sense of because, or as?

 14. When do the words which may be conjected both to a word, and a mono, stand conjected to a mono?

THE TEXT.

THE following words will not make sense with one word. Hence they are conjected to entire monos:

And And therefore And yet* And though And Although And so* As* As also* (and) As well as Also* Again* Because Beside* Besides* Being* But* But though But although But however* Both* (and) Either* Except* Excepting* Even* Even so Else For* (because)

Further* Hence* (therefore) However* (but) Howsoever Howbeit If Inasmuch Lest Likewise* Moreover Nay* Nathless Not only* (but) Nevertheless Notwithstanding No* Now* Neither* (nor) Or even* Otherwise* (or)Provided* Save* Since*-(as) Than Then*(therefore) Thence* (therefore) Therefore

- N. B. Those words which have the * make sense with single words.
- 1. The word, ripe, makes sense with one other word; as, ripe apple.

The word, and, however, makes nonsense with one

word; as, and apple.

Now, what kind of an apple is an and apple?

2. The word, therefore, makes no sense with a single word; we do not say, therefore apples, therefore books, therefore men, therefore hats, &c. There is nothing in apples, books, men, hats, &c., of which therefore is the sign, the name.

Some of these words, however, make sense with a single word; as, yet, so, as, also, again, beside, besides, being, but, however, both, either, except, excepting, even, for, further, hence, nay, not, only, no, now, neither, provided,

save, since, then, and thence.

Those words, then, which never make sense with an individual word, are, and, therefore, though, although, because, else, howsoever, howbeit, if, inasmuch, lest, moreover, nathless, nevertheless, nothwithstanding, or, nor, and than.

In the first of the following sentences, yet is conjected to one word—in the second, to a whole mono:

1. We are yet writing.

2. They have promised; yet they do not perform.

Yet belongs to a whole mono where it has the sense of

but, nevertheless, notwithstanding.

1. Those words which may make sense with a *single* word, or with a *whole mono*, stand conjected to monos, only where they introduce a mono containing a cordiction.

2. The words in the above columns, which stand in this order, and although, and yet, but though, &c., may

stand conjected to the same mono.

3. When and can be substituted for as well as, as well as stands conjected to a mono; as, He was there as well as his brother, . . .

4. When both is followed by and, both stands conjected to a mono; as, He was both virtuous, and brave. (Part II. p. 143.)

5. When or follows either, or is conjected to a mono,

as, Either he, or I must return. (PART II. p. 145.)

6. When because can be substituted for for, for stands conjected to a mono; as, Henry returned, for he desired to be at home.

7. When hence is used in the sense of therefore, hence stands conjected to a mono; as, He desired to be at home—hence he returned. (PART II. p. 147.)

8. When however is used in the sense of but, it stands conjected to a mono; as, He came to Boston; however he soon left. (Part II. p. 148.)

9. When not only is followed by but, not-only stands conjected to a mono; as, He is not only wise, but he is

good. (PART II. p. 144.)

10. When neither is followed by nor, it stands conjected to a mono; as, Neither he, , , nor I was severely hurt. (Part II. p. 151.)

11. When otherwise is used in the sense of or, it stands conjected to a mono; as, God gives men power to repent—otherwise the Bible is unsound. (Part II. p. 151.)

12. When provided is used in the sense of if, it stands conjected to a mono; as, I will be there provided I

can , , . (Part II. p. 151.)

13. When since is used in the sense of as, it stands conjected to a mono; as, Since I cannot go I must stay. (Part II. p. 151.)

14. When then is used in the sense of therefore, it stands conjected to a mono; as, What, then, was to be

done? (PART II. p. 153.)

15. When thence is used in the sense of therefore, it stands conjected to a mono; as, God requires all to do good—thence none should do ill. (PART II. p. 147.)

16. When now is not used in the sense of at this time, it stands conjected to a mono; as, "Now, how is any man to learn the will of his Maker, except from the Bible, and his conscience?" (Part II. p. 150.)

LESSON VII.

1. How many states have monos?

2. What are the names of the states?

3. Can you explain the meaning of ple-na-ry, implenary, broken and unbroken as used in this theory?

4. Give the examples which illustrate these four states

of monos in the text.

5. Where is the implenary state most likely to occur?

6. Can you render the following monos plenary?

Give , me a book.

7. Are the following monos in a broken, or in an unbroken state?

1 1 2 2 1 1 Give thou to James another apple. (2 monos.)

THE TEXT.

STATE OF MONOS.

The states of a mono are

1. Plenary, and

3. Broken, and

2. Implenary,

4. Unbroken.

1. The plenary state is that which arises from that degree of fulless, which admits of solution without supplying words; as, [Give thou an apple] (to me.)

2. The *implenary state* is that which arises from a want of one, or more words; as, [Give , (, me) an

apple.]

3. The broken state is that which arises from a division of one mono by the intervention of some other mono; as, [Law (in its most general sense) is a rule] (of action.) [Law () is a rule.]

4. The unbroken state is that which arises from a continuity of all the parts of a mono; as, [Law is a rule]

(of action.)

The implenary state is most likely to happen in those monos which begin with the words that stand conjected to a mono.

SPECIMEN OF MONOIZING.

- A certain man planted a vineyard and , set a hedge 3 3 4 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 6 about it, and , digged a place for the wine vat, and 6 6 6 6 7 7 7 7 7 8 8 9 9 , built a tower, and , let it out to husbandmen, and 9 9 10 10 10 10 , went into a far country.
- 1. A certain man planted a vineyard, a plenary, unbroken mono.
- 2. and he set a hedge, an implenary, unbroken mono.

3. about it,

a plenary, unbroken mono.

4. and he digged a place,

an implenary, vnbroken mono.

5. for the wine vat,

a plenary, unbroken mono.

6. and he built a tower,

an implenary, unbroken mono.

7. and he let it out,

an implenary, unbroken mono.

8. to husbandmen,

a plenary, unbroken mono.

9. and he went,

an implenary, unbroken mono.

10. into a far country,

a plenary, unbroken mono.

Scheme.

In the following exercises the sentences are monoized, not by figures, but by [] and (). All the words which fall within the [], belong to one mono; and all those

which fall within (), belong to one mono; as, [Law in its most general sense) is a rule] (of action.)

1. Law is a rule, a plenary, broken mono.

2. in its most general sense, a plenary, unbroken mono.

3. of action,

a plenary, unbroken mono.

The implenary state is indicated by commas, and the number of words which is necessary to render it plenary, is indicated by the number of commas; as, [The power (of speech) is a faculty] (,, peculiar) (to man.)

which is peculiar,

an implenary, unbroken mono.

1. In monoizing, the pupil should render each implenary mono a plenary one.

The pupil should be made to comprehend that the mono is taken as it is found on the paper, not as it is found in his mouth.

Every mono is plenary in the mouth of him who monoizes properly. In some instances, however, entire monos are omitted, as

"But they understood not what he said unto them." But they understood not what ,] ((, he said) (unto them.)

1. But they understood not what things, an implenary, unbroken mono.

2. they were,

a plenary, unbroken mono.

3. which he said. an implenary, unbroken mono.

4. unto them, a plenary, unbroken mono.

No part of the mono, "they were," is taken on the paper; the mono is in the mouth, and as it is all uttered, its state is plenary.

EXERCISES.

Lesson X. serves as a Key to these exercises.

1. [They have half] (of a dollar.)

The city (of Hudson) is not large.
 I am (of opinion) (that he will come.)

4. [He was refused] (admittance.) 5. [A profile (of my friend,) is here.]

6. The room is full (of smoke.)

7. [The beauty (of that tree) is not great.]

8. [He is void] (of sense.)

9. [The boy is worthy] (of praise.)
10. [He is destitute] (of money.)

11. The power (of speech) is a faculty (, culiar) (to man;) (and , was bestowed) (on him) (by his beneficent Creator) (for the greatest most excellent (and , , , ,) (, , most excellent uses;) (but (alas) how often do we pervert it) (to the of purposes.)

12. [The rapid extension (of the Christian religion,) (through the principal nations) (of the world,) may be considered a direct proof] (of the reality) (of the miracles) (of our Saviour;) (and , , , , , ,

, ,) (of the miraculous powers) (with which) (the apostles (, themselves) were endowed.)

13. [The most powerful motives call] (on us) (for those efforts) (which our common country demands) (of all her children.)

14. [The eyes (of a fool) are] (in the ends) (of the

earth.)

15. (In the beginning) [was the word;] (and the word

was) (with God;) (and the word was God.)

16. [A certain man planted a vineyard,] (and , set a hedge) (about it,) (and , digged a place) (for the wine vat,) (and , built a tower,) (and , let it out) (to husbandmen,) (and , went) (into a far country.)

17. [Nature has so exquisitely modelled the human features] (, , , that) (they are capable) (of the expression) (of the most secret emotions) (of the

soul.)

18. [Now, when (he had ended all his sayings) (in the audience) (of the people,) he entered] (into Capernaum.)

19. [And a certain Centurion's servant (who was dear) (unto him,) was sick,] (and , , ready to die.)

20. (Verily, verily, [I say] (unto you) he (that entereth not) (by the door,) (into the sheepfold,) (but climbeth up) (, some other way,) (, , the same , ,) is a thief,) (and , , a robber.)

21. [Give , (, me) such ,] (as I purchased;) (and , , as much ,) (as I purchased;) and I

shall be satisfied.)

22. [Do, the job] (in such a manner) (as will please him;) (and he will give (, you) as many dollars) (as will pay you well) (for your trouble.)

23. [Such , (as I have,) I will give] (unto thee.)

24. [No such thing was ever declared] (as he seems to recollect.)

25. (, Much) (as man desires) [a little will answer.]

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26. [As (Jesus passed by) he saw a man] (that was
blind) (from his birth.)
  27. [As long (as I am) (in the world,) I am the light]
of the world.)
  28. [He was good] (as well as , , rich.)
29. [They came] (as pupils) (to my school.)
  30. [I must not use another's book when] (I have one)
(of my own.)
31. [They accommodate one another daily.]
  32. [Give, (, James) another apple.]
33. [The interest (of another, ) is not as dear] (to
me) (as my own , , .)
  34. [I claim this one] (for my own , )—(but another
  , claims it) (as another's , .)
35. [This day suits my interest;] (another, may suit another's, better) (than this, , , , .)
36. [Any interest (except my own, ) is another's
  37. [John has six books;] (and his brother , seven
  ( , , added) (to
these , ) make thirteen , .)

1 1 1 2 2 1 1 3
38. [Nevertheless, I tell ( , you) the truth: (it
3 3 4 4 3 5 5 5
is expedient (for you) that) (I go away.)
  39. [But (if I (with the finger) (of God) cast out
  2 1 1 1 1 5 5 1 1
devils) no doubt the kingdom (of God) is come] (unto
you.)
               2 2 2
           1
40. [And he, (that had been dead,) came forth,
                        4 4 4 5
    3 3
 7 8 -
                     8
    , foot) (with grave-clothes.)
 In Lesson X. these monos are rendered plenary.
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PART III.

DENDROLOGY.

LESSON I.

1. What is dendrology?

2. Into how many parts is dendrology divided?

3. What is *Mono* dendrology?

4. What is Ep-e dendrology? (Ep-e, word.)5. How are monos divided in dendrology?

6. What is a pleocorm?

7. What does pleo mean?

8. What is the etymology of pleo?

9. What does clad mean?

10. What is the etymology of clad?

11. How many ranks have clads?

12. How many relations have clads?
13. When is a clad of the *first* rank?

14. When is a clad of the plus relation?

15. Of what rank is the clad which is removed five constructive degrees from the pleocorm?

16. What is meant by "superior mono?"

17. What is meant by "conjective reading?"

18. Have you examined the specimens of dendrologizing, with great care?

19. What is said of the rank of a clad which belongs

to the pleocorm, and a clad?

20. Are rank, and relation confined to clads?

21. What is the meaning, and the etymology of corm?

THE TEXT.

1. Dendrology is made from dendros, a trunk with its branches, and from logos, a word, and means the trunk and branch relation of the monos of a sentence, and the trunk and branch relation of the words of a mono.

2. Corm is derived of kormos, the trunk of the dendron or tree, and means the foundation mono of a sentence,

and a foundation word of a mono.

3. Clad is derived from klados, a branch of the dendron, or tree, and means a mono which bears a branch relation to another mono.

4. Pleocorm is derived from corm, foundation, basis, and pleonos, more than one, and means the foundation mono which must always comprise more than one word. (Pleo, more than one.)

5. Corm, without pleo, signifies a foundation word in a mono. But corm with pleo, means the foundation mono

of the sentence.

6. Clade is derived from clad, and signifies a word

which bears a branch relation to another word.

1. Pleocorm, the foundation mono of the sentence; as, [The most powerful motives call] (on us) (for those efforts) (which our common country demands) (of all her children.)

2. Corme, a foundation word in the frame-work of a mono; as, motives, in the pleocorme, us, efforts, which, country,

and children, in the clad monos.

3. Clad, a branch mono; as, (on us) (for those efforts) (which our common country demands) (of all her chil-

dren.)

4. Clade, a word which bears a branch relation to another word in the same mono; as, the, most, powerful, and call, in the pleocorm; and as, on in the first clad, for, and those in the second clad, our, common, and demands in the third clad, and of, and all, in the last.

DIVISION OF DENDROLOGY.

Dendrology is divided into mono dendrology, and ep-e dendrology.**

1. Mono Dendrology,

respects the frame-work rank, and relation of monos.

Order of Monos.

Monos are divided into two orders upon the principle of their frame-work rank in a gnomod, or sentence. These are

1. Pleocorm, and

1. Pleocorm, and 2. Clad.

1. The pleocorm is the foundational, the trunk, mono in a gnomod, or sentence; as, [There was a marriage] (in Cana) (of Galilee.)

Note.—The pleocorm bears the same sustaining rela-

^{*} Ep-e, from epos, a word.

tion to the clad in the frame-work of a sentence, which the trunk bears to the branches in the frame-work of a tree.

2. The clad is a branch mono; as, [There was a mar-

riage] (in Cana) (of Galilee.)

Note.—The clads bear the same relation to the pleocorm, in the frame-work of the sentence, which the branches bear to the trunk, in the frame-work of a tree.

RULES.

1. That mono which is so disposed of in the gnomodic frame-work as to become the foundation of the sentence, is the pleocorm; as, [There was a marriage] (in Cana) (of Galilee.)

2. That mono which is so disposed of in the sentence, as to have a *frame-work dependence* upon another mono, is a clad; as, [There was a marriage] (in Cana) (of

Galilee.) (Ah,) (John,) have you come again?

REMARKS.

The first rule is a sort of definition—it tells you that the pleocorm is the basis in the frame-work of a sentence; as, [Jesus saw a man] (that was blind) (from his birth.) ["Jesus saw a man."]

The second rule is also a sort of definition, for it informs you that a clad is a mono having a frame-work dependence upon another mono; as, [Jesus saw a man]

(who was blind) (from his birth.)

The first clad subjoins to the pleocorm the circumstance of the man's blindness. The second clad subjoins to the first clad, the circumstance of the time during which his blindness had continued; (who was blind) (from his

birth.)

Let me here put you somewhat on your guard respecting rules and definitions. You must understand them; or you can derive no benefit from them. And to understand them, you must, in reading them, pause at each word in every mono, and at each mono in every sentence. Let me then call your attention to these rules again.

1. That mono which is so disposed of in the verbal frame-work as to become the foundation of the sentence, is the pleocorm; as, Joseph went to the city; James to the country. [Joseph went.]

2. That mono which is so disposed of in the sentence as to have a frame-work dependence upon another mono, is a clad; as, Joseph went (to the city;) (James went) (to

the country.)

You should give close attention to the phrase, "so disposed of." The pleocorm may, by a different disposition in the frame-work, become a clad; and a clad may in the same way, become the pleocorm; as, [James went] (to the city,) (Joseph,) (to the country.)

[I say the truth] (in Christ;) (I lie not;) (my conscience also bearing (, me) witness) (in the Holy Ghost.)
[I lie not;] (I say the truth) (in Christ;) (my conscience

also bearing (, me) witness) (in the Holy Ghost.)

Few sentences, however, can undergo that revolution in their dendrology, in the manner of their frame-work, which is necessary to turn the pleocorm into a clad, and a clad into the pleocorm, without a very obvious change in the sense itself. And when the change in structure gives a new sense, the old sentence is entirely lost in the new.

In the following the pleocorm cannot become a mere clad:

("To him) (that worketh) [is the reward not reckoned] (of grace,) (but , , ,) (of debt.")

HOW THE PLEOCORM MAY BE DISTINGUISHED FROM THE CLADS.

No sentence has more than one clad, of which potential precession can be predicated—and there are very many sentences in which no clad can occupy the first place; as, But one thing is needful; (and Mary hath chosen that good part) (which shall not be taken away) (from her.)

As there is but one clad which can occupy the first place in any sentence; and, as the pleocorm always can, it follows that the pleocorm is one of the two monos which

can commence the sentence; as, (In the beginning) [was the word;] and the word was with God, and the word was God.

(In the beginning,) and [was the word] are the only monos with which the verse can be commenced; hence it follows that one of these is the pleocorm.

SPECIMEN

Of giving the Dendrology of Monos.

1. Canst thou draw out Leviathan with a hook?

Canst thou draw out Leviathan, The pleocorm. Rule
1. (Read the rule.)

with a hook, a clad. Rule 2.

2. Hearken, unto me, O, my people. (ye.)

Hearken ye, the pleocorme. Rule 1.

unto me, a clad. Rule 2.

O, a clad. Rule 2.

my people, a clad. Rule 2.

EXERCISES.

1. He was led up of the Spirit. (2 M.)

- 2. And the house was filled with the odor of the ointment. (3 M.)
 - 3. And she wiped his feet with her hair. (2 M.)
 - 4. By grace are ye saved (, ,) through faith. (4 M.)
 - 5. I can write better , with a pen than , , , with a pencil. (4 M.)
 - 6. And they cried out with a loud voice. (2 M.)
 - 7. He lived in London , a year. (3 M.)
 - 8. On Friday last, we launched the ship. (2 M.)
 9. He went from his teachers to his books. (3 M.)
- 10. He wrote these letters on last evening, in my presence, on that table, with his pencil. (5 M.)
- N. B. Should more exercises be deemed necessary, they may be found under pp. 49, 50, 51, 52, 61, 62, 63, 68, 69, 70, 82, 83, 84, 85.

SECOND SPECIMEN.

["And when (much people were gathered together,) he spake] (unto them) (by parables.")

1. "And he spake when," A plenary broken pleocorm,

2. "much people were gathered together,"

A plenary unbroken clad.

3. "unto them,"

A plenary unbroken clad.

4. "by parables,"

A plenary unbroken clad.

PREPARED EXERCISES.

Let the pupil supply every implied word as her eads his mono.

The pleocorm is in [], the clads, in ().

1. [There was a marriage] (in Cana) (of Galilee.)

2. [He stands] (by the river.)

3. [He lived] (in London) (during a year.)

4. [He remained] (at home) (, six years.)

5. [He travelled] (in the United States) (three years.)

- 6. [He returned] (, last evening.)
- 7. (On Friday last) [we launched the ship.]

8. [He will be here] (within two days.)

- 9. (On Saturday) [our church was dedicated.]
- 10. [He studied] (, sixteen hours) (, a day.)
 11. [He wrought] (, every minute) (of his time.)

12. [He went] (from his teacher) (to his books.)

13. [Will you give (, me) your opinion] (of this affair.)

14. [But every man hath his proper gift] (of God.)

15. [But our sufficiency is] (of God,)

16. [For whatsoever is more , cometh] (of evil.)

17. [They came out] (of Egypt.)

18. [They drank] (of the living rock.)

(More exercises, pp. 49, 50, 51, 52, 61, 62, &c.)

I. RANK, AND RELATION OF CLADS.

THE rank of a clad respects its near, or remote connection with the *pleocorm*. The ranks are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

1. That clad which holds a direct connection with the *pleocorm*, is of the first rank; as, [There was a marriage] (in Cana 1) (of Galilee.)

2. That *clad* which has a *direct* frame-work dependence upon a clad of the *first* rank, is of the second rank; as,

There was a marriage (in Cana) (2 of Galilee.)

By conjecting these monos, it will be seen that "in Cana," has no direct dependence upon the pleocorm; as, there was a marriage of Galilee.

II. RELATIONS OF THE CLADS.

THE relation of a clad respects the number of monos to which it stands conjected in construction. Clads have two relations, viz. *Uni*, and *Plus*.

That clad which, in the frame-work of a sentence, depends upon only one other mono, is of the uni relation;

as, [John is the brother] (of James.)

2. That clad which, in the frame-work of a sentence, depends upon more than one other mono, is of the plus relation; as, [John is the brother] (of James;) (but he is not the brother) (of Nathaniel.)

REMARKS.

THE relations of clads are a very important part of the

dendrology of monos.

The author of this work has not unfrequently seen the best English scholars in our country, attempt in vain, to decide the relation of clads. Nor did these clads occur in complicated sentences. When I find a teacher, a lawyer, or a judge, who is unable to decide whether a clad is of the uni, or plus relation, I think myself fully justified in drawing the conclusion that he would do much better in his profession had he a better knowledge of the structure of sentences which are written in his own vernacular tongue. And let me here say to the pupil, that so long

as he finds it difficult to decide whether the relation of a clad is uni, or plus, there is still much for him to learn in

the science of dendrology.

To give the plus relation a full discussion, would require a volume. It depends upon so many nice shades of thought that the examples themselves would be appalling to the pupil. I shall give below a few instances of illustration, which will serve to throw the mind into a thoughtful posture in relation to this interesting subject. And these, well apprehended, will do much to enable any one who wishes to become competent to decide of which relation any clad may be, to go far toward the gratification of his wish.

In order to understand what follows on the subject of the relation of clads, it may be well to speak of the process of *conjective reading*.

CONJECTIVE READING,

Is the process of conjecting the inferior mono to its superior mono, or monos.

[There was a marriage] (in Cana) (of Galilee.)

"in Cana," a clad, uni relation, belonging to its superior mono. Conjective reading—There was a marriage in Cana.

"of Galilee," a clad, uni relation, belonging to its superior mono. Conjective reading—(in Cana) (of Galilee.)

The number of monos upon which a certain clad depends, decides the relation of the clad. In the above instances, in Cana, has a dependent relation with the pleocorm

only—in Cana, then, is uni relation.

Of Galilee has a dependent relation with in Cana only. Hence of Galilee is of the uni relation. But did of Galilee hold a dependent relation with the pleocorm, and with the clad, in Cana, of Galilee would be of the plus relation. All, however, that is necessary to justify the introduction of of Galilee, is in Cana. (In Cana) (of Galilee) is perfectly good in sense, and frame-work. Of Galilee does not stand conjected either in sense, or construction, with "There was a marriage." There was a marriage of Galilee, is not the sense which the sentence is intended to convey.

Again. What justifies the introduction of the clad, in Cana? Could in Cana be used was it not for the support, the sense support, and the frame-work support, of "There was a marriage?" There was a marriage, then, is the superior mono of in Cana. "There was a marriage," is the trunk upon which in Cana depends for a frame-work support. And in Cana is the superior branch upon which of Galilee depends for a frame-work support.

"John is the brother of James."

Is it not obvious that of James depends upon John is the brother for a frame-work support? Is it not obvious, too, that John is the brother yields, affords, this support

to of James, just as the trunk sustains its branch?

2. "John is the brother of James; (but he is not the brother) of Nathaniel." Is it not here obvious that, "but he is not the brother," is entirely dependent upon the two monos, [John is the brother] (of James,) for a frame-work, and a sense, support? That "but he is not the brother," has a relation, a frame-work connection, with "of Nathaniel," is admitted. But the relation which "but he is not the brother" has to "of Nathaniel," is quite different from that connection which it has with ["John is the brother] (of James.") In the one case the relation is a dependent connection; or it is the connection of dependence—in the other it is the connection of sustaining. "But he is not the brother," is not introduced by "of Nathaniel"—but by [John is not the brother] (of James.)

Again. It is not only important for you to see that, the clad, "but he is not the brother," not only does not depend upon the clad, "of Nathaniel," but to see also that it depends upon the two monos, ["John is the brother] (of James.) Is it not obvious from an attempt at conjecting, "but he is not the brother," to either of the two monos, that "but he is not the brother" is not wholly

supported by one?

[John is the brother,] but he is not the brother.

This is not sense. Nor is the following any better:

(Of James) but he is not the brother.

The following, however, is sense, though it is not the full sense of the entire period:

["John is the brother] (of James;) but he is not the

brother.

Here the sense is perfectly clear, perfectly good, as far as the paragraph is continued. The mono, "of Nathaniel," is wanted, not to render the sense of the other monos clear, sound and connected, but to complete the omitted thought which is subjoined to the connected thought of the other monos, ["John is the brother] (of James,) (but he is not the brother—)

These monos stand well compacted together: nothing more is needed to produce any closer connection among them. True, these three monos do not express the whole sense, but they express that portion of it which they are intended to express, and that, too, in a perfectly clear and connected manner.

3. ["He (that makes his fire) (of hay) hath much smoke,] (but he hath little heat.)

The mono, but he hath little heat, is of the uni relation. This may be seen from conjecting it to the pleocorm:

[He hath little heat;] (but he hath much smoke.)

4. [He made his fire] (of hay;) (hence he had little heat.)
The conjective reading will show that the last mono is plus relation.

[He made his fire] (hence he had little heat.)

Now, the cause of his having but a little heat, was certainly not that he made his fire: he had but a little heat because he made his fire of hay. The conjective reading, then, is,

[He made his fire] (of hay;) (hence he had little heat.) 5. [He made his fire] (of hay) (hence he had much smoke.)

The mono, hence he had much smoke, is of the plus relation. This mono is not sustained by the pleocorm alone: the conjecting of it with the pleocorm only, does not give the exact sense:

[He made his fire;] (hence he had much smoke.)

The true conjection is this:

[He made his fire] (of hay;) (hence he had much smoke.)

It may be thought, however, that the last mono depends

entirely upon of hay. If this position is tenable, the mono is not of the plus, but uni relation:

(Of hay) (hence he had much smoke.)

But it was not the hay which produced the smoke: the making of the fire of hay produced it. The making of the fire did not produce the great amount of smoke; nor did the hay produce it. But it was the making of the fire of hay which produced it. Hence it is obvious that the mono, "hence he had much smoke," is of the plus relation.

6. [He directed the letter] (to John Foster;) (therefore

Jane Foster did not receive it.)

What was it which prevented Jane Foster from receiving the letter? Was it John Foster? No. Was it the directing of the letter, which prevented Jane from receiving it? No. The directing of the letter to John Foster prevented Jane Foster's receiving it. The mono, then, "therefore Jane Foster did not receive it," is not justified by one mono; hence it is not of the uni relation.

7. [Henry came very fast,] (hence he soon arrived.)

The mono, "hence he soon arrived," is of the uni relation. This mono cannot be of the plus relation, for there is but one other mono in the sentence.

S. [Henry came] (with great speed,) (hence he soon

arrived.)

In this sentence there are three monos; hence, if the construction will allow, the clad, hence he soon arrived, may be of the plus relation:

1. [Henry came,] (hence he soon arrived.)

2. [Henry came] (with great speed;) (hence he soon arrived.) Surely of the plus.

9. [I told the truth] (but he did not believe me.) Uni.

10. [I told the truth] (in every particular;) (but he did not believe me.)

It does not appear that in every particular, contributed to a want of faith; hence the mono, but he did not believe me, is of the uni relation.

[I told the truth;] (but he did not believe me.)

[The power (of speech) is a faculty] (,, peculiar) (to man;) (and, was bestowed) (on him) (by his be-

neficent Creater) (for the greatest , ;) (and , , ,)
(, , most excellent uses;) (but (alas) how often do
we pervert it) (to the worst ,) (of purposes.)

I shall give the dendrology of the monos of this sentence. In doing this, I shall create occasions for comment on the relations.

1. The power is a faculty,

a plenary broken pleocorm.

2. Of speech,

a plenary unbroken clad, first rank, uni relation, belonging to its superior mono.

Conjective reading: [The power (of speech) is a

faculty.]

In general, all the superior mono should be read before the *inferior* one is introduced. In the above instance, however, this cannot be done without a change in the idea, the *sense*, of the writer.

[The power is a faculty] (of speech.)

But, although all the superior mono cannot be read before the inferior one is introduced, yet the portion which is omitted for the introduction of the inferior mono, should be resumed, and read. Hence, "the power of speech," is not the conjective reading of the clad, of speech. The following is the true conjective reading:

[The power (of speech) is a faculty.]

REMARK.

Within a few months I have taught several gentlemen, among whom I have found there have been some who seem to think it a drudgery to give the conjective reading entire. Some have contented themselves with simply saying, "Belonging to its superior mono," the power.

Others have condescended to conject the inferior mono with a mere part of the superior; as, ["The power] (of

speech.")

Now, the result of this defective method in giving the conjective reading, is that they who have pursued it, have not yet enabled themselves to give the dendrology of monos. The pupil, whether old or young, should give the conjective reading entire. Nor is this all; for, in giving the conjective reading, he should render each implenary mono plenary.

3. which is peculiar,

an implenary unbroken clad; first rank, uni relation, belonging to its superior mono. Conjective reading: [The power is a faculty] (which is peculiar.)

4. to man,

a plenary, unbroken clad; second rank, uni relation, belonging to its superior mono. Conjective reading: [which is peculiar] (to man.)

5. and it was bestowed,

an implenary unbroken clad, first rank, plus relation, belonging to its superior monos. Conjective reading: [The power (of speech,) is a faculty] (which is peculiar)

(to man;) (and it was bestowed.)

1. The first thing to which your attention should be turned is the peculiarity in the rank of this clad. This mono is conjected to the pleocorm; hence it is of the first rank. This mono is also conjected to two clads of the first rank, viz., of speech, and which is peculiar. Hence this mono is of the second rank. Nor is this all; for this same mono is conjected to a clad of the second rank, viz., to man. In relation to the clad, to man, this mono is of the third rank. The mono, then, "and it was bestowed," has three ranks. It derives the first from its connection with the pleocorm; its second, from its connection with the two monos, of speech, and which is peculiar, and its third, from its connection with to man. To express all these ranks would encumber the process of analyzing monos, without any good result equivalent to the embarrassment which it would produce. Where the mono, then, is of the plus relation, the pupil should not be required to express its different ranks. He should be required, however, to give one of its ranks. And, as the highest can generally be ascertained with greater ease than any other one, it seems expedient that he should express this rank, and omit the other, or others.

2. The second thing to which your attention should be turned in the dendrology of the mono, "and it was bestowed," is the relation. The relation of the mono, is plus. And that you may the better understand that the relation of it is plus, I shall direct your attention to the import of and. And signifies add, subjoin, what follows

to all, or to a mere part of what precedes; as, John called me; and I answered him. That is, add I answered him to John called me.

I first affirm to the reader that John called me. I next require the reader to add the fact that I answered him. But to what do I command the reader to add, to subjoin this fact? There is no difficulty in answering this question, for there is but one thing to which this fact can be added; and the fact that "John called me," is that thing. But did several things, several propositions, fall before and, the question might not be answered with so much ease.

[John got the horn,] (and he called me;) " AND I answered him."

To which fact is "I answered him" to be added? It is not the province of and to decide this point: this is under the control of the nature of the case. Let the point be decided by conjective reading:

[John got the horn;] (AND I answered him.)

It is obvious that "I answered him" is not to be added, subjoined, to the pleocorm.

(and he called me;) (AND I answered him.)

This is sense.

[John got the horn;] (AND he called me,) (and I answered him.)

To what is "he called me," to be added, to be subjoined? The word, and, is the sign that this fact is to be added, subjoined; to something; and the nature of the case clearly indicates that it must be added to "John got his horn."

The word, and, and the marks &, + mean much the same thing. [John called me] (& I answered him.)
[John called me] (+ I answered him.)

6 + 9 are fifteen. 6 & 9 are fifteen. 6 and 9 are

fifteen.

[The power (of speech) is a faculty] (which is peculiar) (to man;) (and it was bestowed) (on him) (by his beneficent Creator) (for the greatest uses) (and it was bestowed) (for the most excellent uses;) (but, (alas,) how often do we pervert it) (to the worst purpose) (of purposes.)

1. [The power is a faculty] (+ it was bestowed.)

2. [The power (of speech) is a faculty] (+ it was bestowed.)

3. [The power (of speech) is a faculty] (which is pecu-

liar;) (+ it was bestowed.)

4. [The power (of speech) is a faculty] (which is pecu-

liar) (to man) (+ it was bestowed.)

The fourth sentence gives the true conjective reading. The writer does not intend to add it was bestowed, to the power is a faculty only. The writer of the sentence first affirms that "The power of speech is a faculty which is peculiar to man." He then writes the mono, "it was bestowed." Before this mono he places the sign of addition, and, +, &. This sign informs the reader that the assemblage of monos, (it was bestowed) (on him) (by his beneficent Creator,) (for the greatest uses) is intended as additional matter. And the nature of the case indicates that this assemblage of four monos, is to be subjoined, or added, to the preceding assemblage which is also composed of four distinct monos.

There is one mono, however, in the added assemblage of monos, to which and more particularly belongs than to the other three. This is, "it was bestowed."

Without this mono, and could not be used—this may

be seen from the following:

The power of speech is a faculty which is peculiar to man, and (, , ,) on him by his beneficent

Creator for the greatest uses.

As there is one mono in the added assemblage with which and holds a direct syntax connection, so there is one mono in the assemblage to which the added assemblage is subjoined, which alone makes it possible to subjoin the added assemblage. This mono is, "the power is a faculty."

Without this mono, the assemblage, it was bestowed on him by his beneficent Creator for the greatest uses, could not be added to the assemblage, "of speech which is pecu-

liar to man:"

"Of speech which is peculiar to man," and it was bestowed on him by his beneficent Creator for the greatest uses.

The philosophy of this subject seems to be this:

When and is used between two assemblages of monos, not only one assemblage has a higher frame-work rank than the other, but there is one mono in each assemblage, which holds a higher rank than the other monos. The assemblage of monos, which holds the *first* rank is this:

[The power (of speech) is a faculty] (which is peculiar) (to man.)

2. The assemblage of monos, which holds the *inferior* rank is this:

(and it was bestowed) (on him) (by his beneficent Creator) (for the greatest uses.)

The mono which holds the highest rank in the assemblage of monos of the first rank, is this:

["The power is a faculty."]

The mono which holds the highest rank in the inferior assemblage of monos, is this:

(" It was bestowed.")

Now, the true syntax of and, extends no farther than to the mono, "it was bestowed." And the true syntax province of and, is to subjoin the highest mono in the inferior assemblage of monos, to the highest mono in the superior assemblage of monos. In the present instance, then, and subjoins its own mono to "the power is a faculty." This may be seen from the following conjective reading:

[The power is a faculty;] (and it was bestowed.)

Strictly speaking, then, the mono, "and it was bestowed," is of the uni relation. But, in a logical point of view, the entire superior assemblage of monos, may be taken as one proposition to which the entire inferior assemblage of monos, may be added, or subjoined by and. In this way the perceptive powers of the pupil are more liberally employed than they are in deciding the relation of the inferior mono to which and belongs, by its mere syntax connection with its superior mono only.

10. [John is the brother] (of James,) (and he is also my brother.)

Here the true mere syntax relation of the last mono, is uni:

[John is the brother,] (and he is also my brother.)

This is obvious from the fact that the mono, "and he is also my brother," cannot be employed in this sentence without the mono, "John is the brother." This may be seen from the following conjective reading:

(Of James) (and he is also my brother.)

But it may be thought, because the sense is not fully carried out by the following conjective reading, that the mono, "and he is also my brother," is plus relation from its mere syntax connection in the sentence.

[John is the brother,] (and he is also my brother.)

In conjecting the two monos which have a syntax connection, we do not undertake to express the entire sense of a sentence which has three monos. For instance:

["And (without him) was not anything made] (that was made.")

The following is the true syntax reading of the last mono:

[And was not anything made] (that was made.)

If the reader presumes that the *entire* sense of the above quotation, is to be expressed in the conjective reading of two of its monos, he must be quite wrong. Not only the *entire* sense of the whole quotation is not expressed by the *syntax* reading of the mono, "that was made," but the sense which is expressed in this *syntax* reading, is absolutely *contrary* to the sense of the *entire* quotation.

[And was not anything made] (that was made.)

That is, nothing which was actually made, was in fact made! Or, the very things which were made, were not made!

SPECIMEN IN THE DENDROLOGY OF MONOS.

("In the beginning) [was the word,] (and the word was) (with God;) (and the word was God.")

1. was the word, A plenary unbroken pleocorm.

2. in the beginning,

A plenary unbroken clad, first rank, uni relation, belonging to its superior mono. Conjective reading—[The word was] (in the beginning.)

3. and the word was,

A plenary unbroken clad, first rank, plus relation, belonging to its superior mono. Conjective reading—[The word was] (in the beginning;) (and the word was.)

4. with God,

A plenary unbroken clad, second rank, uni relation, belonging to its superior mono. Conjective reading—(and the word was) (with God.)

5. and the word was God,

A plenary unbroken clad, second rank, plus relation, belonging to its superior mono. Conjective reading—(and the word was) (with God;) (and the word was God.)

SCHEME.

- 1. In the following prepared exercises, every line constitutes a mono.
 - 2. The first line in every sentence is the pleocorm.
- 3. The conjective reading is indicated by corresponding letters; as, a a, which are placed at the close of the superior mono, and at the commencement of the inferior; as,

The word was a a in the beginning.

Conjected thus: The word was a a in the beginning.

4. The plus relation of a mono is indicated by placing the same letters before the inferior, which accompany its several superiors; as,

The word was a a in the beginning; a a and the word was.

Conjected thus: The word was a a in the beginning; a a and the word was.

PREPARED EXERCISES.

- The eyes a are b*
 a of a fool
 b in the ends c
 c of the earth.
- The most powerful motives call a, b
 a on us
 b for those efforts c
 c which our common country demands d
 d of all her children.
- 3. Nature has so exquisitely modelled the human features a

a , , , that b
b they are capable c
c of the expression d
d of the most secret emotions e
e of the soul.

4. The rapid extension a, b may be considered a direct proof d

a of the Christian religion
b through the principal nations c
c of the world,
d of the reality e
e of the miracles f
f of our Savior,
d d and , , , , , , g
g of the miraculous powers h
i with which i
h the apostles were endowed. i

1. [The power^a is a faculty]^{b, d}
2. a(of speech)

^{*}The inferior mono should be introduced where the conjective letter stands in the superior.

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b(which is peculiar)c
3.
            c(to man;)
 4.
5. d, a, c(and it was bestowed)e, f, g, h, i
               e(on him)
6.
7. f(by his beneficent Creator,)
8. s(for the greatest uses;)
9. h, f, g \text{ (and } it \text{ } was \text{ } bestowed) i
10. i(\text{for the most excellent uses;}) j
11. ij(but^k how often do we pervert it)
12.
                  k(alas)
13. l(to 	 the 	 worst 	 purpose)^m
14. m(\text{of purposes.})
1. [The rapid extension<sup>a</sup>, b is a direct proof]d, g
2. a(of the Christian religion)
3. b(through the principal nations)c
4. c(of the world)
         d(\text{of} \text{ the reality})^e
5.
         e(of the miracles).f
6.
        f(of our Savior;)
7.
    g, a \text{ (and } it \text{ } is \text{ } a \text{ } direct \text{ } proof)^h
8.
9. h(\text{of the miraculous powers})^i
            j(with which)
10.
11. i(\text{the apostles}^k \text{ were endowed}) j
12.
           k(of themselves.)
 1. [The most powerful motives call]a, b
 2. a(on us)
 3. b(\text{for those efforts})^c
 4. c(which our common country demands)d
5. d(of all her children.)
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1. [A certain man planted a vineyard]a, f
 2. a(and he set a hedge)b,c
       b(about it;)
 3.
 4. c, b \text{ (and } he \text{ digged a place)} d, e
     d(for the wine vat;)
 5.
     e, d (and he built a tower;) f
 6.
 7. f(\text{and } he \text{ let it } out)g, h
       g(to husbandmen;)
 8.
      h,g (and he went)i
 9.
        i(into a far country.)
10.
1. [Nature has so exquisitely modelled the human features]a
 2. a(the consequence is that)^b
 3.
          b(they are capable)c
         c(of the expression)d
 4.
 5. d(of the most secret emotions)e
           e(\text{of the soul.})
 6.
 1. [Now, he entered when]a, d
 2. a(he had ended all his sayings)b
        b(in the audience)c
c(of the people,)
 3.
 4.
           d(into Capernaum.)
 5.
 1. [A certain Centurion's servant was sick]a, c
           a(who was dear)^b
 2.
          b(unto him;)
 3.
 4. c(and he was ready to die.))
(To die, is a demi-mono.)
    [1 \quad \text{say,}]a, b
 1.
```

2. $a(\text{verily} \text{ verily he is a thief})^{c, i,j}$

3.	ı	b(unto	you),	
4.	c(that	enteret	h not)a	l, e, f
5 .	d(by	the	door,)	r.
6.	e(into	the	sheep-fol	d ;)
7.	f, g (but	that	climbeth	up)h
8.	h(by	some	other	way)
9.	i(who is	the	same	person)
10.	j(and he	e is	a re	obber.)

(For more exercises in the dendrology of monos, take pages 49, 50, 51, 52, 61, 62, 63, 68, 69, 70.)

LESSON V.

- 1. What is the etymology of syn-clad-ol-o-gy?
- 2. What is the meaning of this word?
- 3. How are clads divided under syn-clad-ology?
- 4. What is a pleocorm clad?
- 5. What is the etymology of clono?
- 6. What is the meaning of clono?
- 7. Does clonos mean a branch of the trunk, or a branch of a branch?
 - 8. What do you say a pleocorm clad is?
 - 9. What is a clono clad?
- 10. Can you give the clad which the author employs to illustrate the pleocorm clad?
- 11. And what clad is given in exemplification of the close clad?
- 12. Have you paid close attention to the specimen in syn-clad-ol-o-gy?
- 13. Do you think that you can give the syn-clad-ology of the clads in the following sentence?

[The sun shines] (upon all men) (who will receive his rays) (which he sends) (from the heavens.)

14. What an ambi clad?

THE TEXT.

The word, syn-clad-ol-o-gy, is made from syn, with, or connected with, clad, a branch mono, and logos, doctrine, principle.

SYN-CLAD-OL-O-GY

is the principle of classing, and naming, the clads after those monos on which they have a constructive dependence.

The principle of naming clads after those monos upon which they constructively depend, is the common pedigree principle of naming children. The child is named after some one with whom he is connected; for instance, a child is called Joseph, because he stands connected by

uncleship to a man of this name.

But syn-clad-ol-o-gy is not only the common principle of naming children, but it is the common principle of naming things. A band is called a hat band, from its connection with a hat; a nail is called a thumb nail, from its connection with the thumb; a nail is called a finger nail from its connection with the finger; a string is called a shoe string, from its connection with a shoe; a pipe is called a stove pipe from its connection with a stove; a cushion is called a pin cushion, from its connection with pins; a pie is called an apple pie, from its connection with apples.

Syn, connected with, clad, a branch mono which is conjected to some superior mono, and logos, principle.

Division of clads.

CLADS are divided upon the principle of their syntax connection with the *pleocorm*, with *clads*, and with both the *pleocorm* and *clads*. All clads stand conjected to the *pleocorm*, to *clads*, or to both: hence they are divided into

1. Pleocorm clads,

- 2. Clono clads, and
- 3. Ambi clads.

1. Clono, from clonos, a branch of a branch, a branch which grows upon another branch.

2. Ambi, both. That is, both pleocorm, and clono at the same time.

1. A pleocorm clad is one which has a direct dependence upon the pleocorm; as, there was a marriage (in Cana) (of Galilee,) "in Cana."

2. A clono clad is one which has a syntax dependence

upon another clad only; as, (in Cana) (of Galilee.)

3. An ambi clad is one which from its dependence upon the pleocorm, and a clad, becomes both a pleocorm clad, and a clono clad; as, [He went] (to the wrong place;) (therefore he did not see his friend.)

SPECIMEN

Of giving the syn-clad-ol-o-gy of clads.

[The sun shines] (upon all men) (who will receive his rays) (which he sends) (from the heavens.)

In this branch nothing is done with the pleocorm: clads, and clads only, fall under the head of syn-clad-ol-o-gy.

2. Upon all men,

a plenary, unbroken pleocorm clad, belonging to the pleocorm. Conjective reading: [The sun shines] (upon all men.)

3. who will receive his rays,

a plenary, unbroken clono clad, belonging to its superior clad. Conjective reading: (Upon all men) (who will receive his rays.)

4. which he sends,

a plenary, unbroken clono clad, belonging to its superior clad. Conjective reading: (who will receive his rays) (which he sends.)

5. from the heavens,

a plenary, unbroken clono clad, belonging to its superior clad. Conjective reading: (which he sends) (from the heavens.)

1. [John wrote a letter] (on last evening) (on that table) (with this pen) (to his brother) (who lives) (in Boston.)

2. on last evening,

a plenary, unbroken pleocorm clad, belonging to the pleocorm. Conjective reading: [John wrote a letter] (on last evening.)

3. on that table,

a plenary, unbroken pleocorm clad, belonging to the pleo-

corm. Conjective reading: [John wrote a letter] (on that table.)

4. with this pen,

a plenary, unbroken pleocorm clad, belonging to the pleocorm. Conjective reading: [John wrote a letter] (with this pen.)

5. to his brother,

a plenary, unbroken pleocorm clad, belonging to the pleocorm. Conjective reading: [John wrote a letter] (to his brother.)

6. who lives,

a plenary, unbroken clono clad, belonging to its superior clad. Conjective reading: (to his brother) (who lives.)

7. in Boston,

a plenary, unbroken clono clad, belonging to its superior clad. Conjective reading: (who lives) (in Boston.)

REMARKS.

The above specimen is the pattern which the pupil should imitate exactly, in giving the syncladology of clads. There may be some teachers who will object to a part of the above form, upon the ground of tautology. They may say that "belonging to the pleocorm" renders the conjective reading redundant, and that "pleocorm clad" renders "belonging to the pleocorm" tautological. Nothing is tautological, that is useful. The giving of the usual form will not only render a new form unnecessary, but will serve to establish that which is already partially acquired. The trouble of learning new forms is very considerable; hence where the common form can be used, it should be employed. Pupils should not be permitted to analyze clads without the full form. The omission of the usual form embarrasses the learner to a very considerable extent.

DIRECTIONS.

After having given the syn-clad-ology of the clads in the following exercises, turn to the exercises under pages 49, 50, 51, 52, 61, 62, 63, 68, 69, 70.

EXERCISES IN SYN-CLAD-OLOGY.

- 1. [This is the pen] (bwith which) (I awrote that letter.b)
 - 2. [Make, (, me) a coat] (with ten buttons.)
- 3. ["The little birds have ceased their warbling:] (they are asleep) (on the boughs) (each , ,) (with his head) (behind his wing.")

4. [He was presented] (with a sword.)

5. [He walks] (with great speed.)

6. [He went] (with me.)

For more exercises, take pages 49, 50, 51, 52, 61, 62, 63, 68, 69, 70.

LESSON VI.

- 1. What is the etymology and meaning of po-e? (not are.)
 - 2. What is the etymology and meaning of ne-po-e?
- 3. How are clads divided with respect to their gnomeology?

4. What is a po-e-clad?

5. What is a ne-po-e-clad?

THE TEXT.

The Gnomeology of Clads.

Po-e is made from poietes, a former, a maker, and means

that which forms, or constitutes a sentence.

Ne-po-e is derived from ne, not, and po-e, that which forms, or constitutes a sentence, and means that which does not form, or constitute a sentence.

The gnomeology of clads respects the gnomodic, and

the want of the gnomodic character of clads.

1. That clad which in itself constitutes, or forms, a gnomod, a sentence, is a po-e-clad; as, ["There was a man] (who was sent) (from God) (whose name was John.")

" Who was sent," "whose name was John."

"Who was sent" contains a cordiction which is an affirmation.
"Whose name was John" contains a cordiction which is an affirmation.

2. That clad which in itself does not form, does not constitute, a sentence, is a ne-po-e-clad; as there was a man who was sent (from God.)

From God does not contain a cordiction; this clad,

then, does not form, constitute, a sentence.

REMARKS.

The word, poietes, is the Greek word from which poe, the prefix part of po-e-clad, is formed, and signifies a former, a constituter. This word, poietes, is changed in its form, not for an import purpose, but for a frame-work one: poietes does not form quite so good a joint with clad, as po-e does. Now, as I have diminished the matter of poietes to suit my syntax purpose, so I have restricted the import of this word to adapt it to my indicative purpose: I do not mean by poe a former, a maker, in general, but a former, a constituter, of a sentence, a former of a gnomod, a cordiction. I believe that this modification in the form of the word, is sustained by philological law, and general usage, and that this slight restriction in the import of it, is not without either of these authorities.

The great principle of verbal emigration, that words which are general in their import, may be made special, in their transit from one language to another, and vice versa, must be repealed before the new shade which I have here given to the original import of poietes, can be

effaced by the critic's breath.

SPECIMEN

Of giving the Gnomeology of Clads.

("In the beginning) [was the word:] (and the word was) (with God;) (and the word was God.")

2. in the beginning,

a plenary, unbroken pleocorm ne-po-e-clad, belonging to the pleocorm. Conjective reading: [The word was] (in the beginning.)

3. and the word was,

a plenary, unbroken ambi po-e-clad, belonging to the pleocorm, and a clad. Conjective reading: [The word was] (in the beginning;) (and the word was.)

4. with God,

a plenary, unbroken clono ne-po-e-clad, belonging to its superior clad. Conjective reading: (and the word was) (with God.)

5. and the word was God,

a plenary, unbroken clono ne-po-e-clad, belonging to its superior clads. Conjective reading: (and the word was) (with God) (and the word was God.)

That is, add to the fact that the word was with God,

the fact that "the word was God."

"And the word was God" is not an ambi clad, for it does not depend upon the pleocorm. It is of the plus relation; but stands conjected to two other clads. Hence it is a mere clono clad.

EXERCISES.

Give the gnomeology, and the syncladology of the clads in the following sentences.

- 1. "A tap , , , at the door, now announced 1 1 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 6 the arrival of the priest; and Edward retired while he administered, to both prisoners, the last rites of religion in 9 9 10 10 10 11 11 10 the mode which the church of Rome prescribes."
- 2. "Shortly after, the drums of the garrison beat to 3 arms."
- 3. "He had a sense of wearisomeness,,,

 4 4 4 5 5 5 6 7 7 7

 from the motion of the carriage; but in all other things,

 6 6 6 8 8 8 8 8

 the day passed as a melancholy dream, ."
- 4. "Almost the first words , Arthur spoke were those , , I have mentioned."

- 5. "His horses' hoofs struck upon the old wooden bridge."
 - 6. "The sound went to his heart."
- 7. "It was here , his mother took her last leave 3 3 4 4 4 4 4 of him, and , blessed him."

Now give the SYNCLADOLOGY and GNOMEOLOGY of all the clads in the various exercises under pages 49, 50, 51, 52, 61, 62, 63, 68, 69, 70.

LESSON VII.

- 1. What is the etymology of monodone?
- 2. What is the meaning of monodone?
- 3. What does the last part of mono-done mean?
- 4. Into how many classes are monodones divided?
- 5. Can you repeat all the members of the first class of monodones?
- 6. Can you repeat all the members of the second class of monodones?
- 7. What is the difference between the first class of monodones, and the second class?
- 8. Are those words which have no * always monodones?
- 9. Can you repeat those members which are monodones in all cases?
- 10. Can you repeat those which may be so used as not to give a new mono?
- 11. Where a member of the second class, closes a pleocorm, or a poeclad, does it give a new mono?

THE TEXT.

THE word, mon-o-done, is derived from mono, that number of words, which can be taken alone, and dono to give,

and signifies those words which give, or commence, new monos. There are two classes of monodones.

1. The first class is composed of those words which

stand conjected to the new monos which they give.

2. The second class of monodones, is composed of those words which stand conjected to the *corm* of the new mono, which they give.

FIRST CLASS OF MONODONES.

Furthermore And And therefore Hence* (therefore) And yet* However* (but) And though Howsoever Howbeit And Although And so* Inasmuch As* Lest Likewise* As also* Moreover As well as (and) Also* Nay* Nathless Again* Not only* (but) Because Nevertheless Beside* Besides* Notwithstanding Being* No* But* Now* But though Neither* (nor)But although But however* Or even* Both* (and) Otherwise* (or)Either* Provided* Except* Save* Excepting* Since*(as)Even* Than Even so (therefore) Then* Thence* (therefore) For* (because) Therefore Further*

SECOND CLASS OF MONODONES.

Above,*	atwixt,	during,	save,*
about,*	before,*	except, *-ing,	*to,*
across,	behind,	for,*	touching,*
after,*	below,	from,	toward,
against,	beneath,	in,*	towards,
amid,	beside,	into,	through,
amidst,	besides,	of,*	throughout,
among,	between,	off,*	under,
amongst,	betwixt,	on,*	underneath,
around,	beyond,	over,*	unto,
as,*	but,*	past,*	up,* upon,*
at,*	by,*	regarding,*	with,*
athwart,	concerning,*	respecting,*	within,*
atween,	down,∗	round,*	without.*

Where these words close a pleocorm, or a poeclad, they are not monodones; as, [John was spoken to.] [The books were called for.]

FIRST CLASS OF MONODONES.

The first class of monodones, is composed of those words which make sense with *entire* monos.

Those words which have the * are not monodones in all instances.

1. The following words are always monodones:

And	inasmuch	than
although	lest	therefore
because	moreover	though
furthermore	nathless	unless
howsoever	notwithstanding	whereas
howbeit	or	whether.
if		

I. The following are not monodones in all cases:

As	except, -ing	likewise	provided
as-well-as	else	nay	since
again	farther	not-only	still
being	for	no	then
but	further	now	thence
both	hence	neither -	whether
either	however	otherwise	yet

II. The following words are monodones in all cases:

Across	athwart	besides	through
against	atween	between	throughout
amid	atwixt	betwixt	underneath
amidst	because-of	\mathbf{beyond}	unto
among	behind	during	upon
amongst	below	from	within
around	beneath	toward	without.
as-to	beside	towards	

II. The following are not monodones in all cases:

	_		
Above	down	on	touching
about	except	over	through
after	excepting	past	throughout
as .	for	regarding	under
at	in	respecting	underneath
before	into	round	up
but	of	save	upon
by	off	to	with.
concerning			

LESSON VIII.

1. When is as a monodone of the first class?

2. In what do the two classes of monodones differ?

3. Where is as a monodone of the second class?

4. Can you repeat each monoizing rule?

I. As—First Class.

1. As is a monodone, where it is used in the sense of because; as, I cannot aid him as I had not the means, As you have come you may stay.

2. As is a monodone where it is used much in the sense

of "like unto;" as, "ye shall be as Gods, ."
3. As, after as far, is a monodone; as, He threw the ball as far as we could see.

4. As is a monodone in a comparison of equality; as, Henry is as good as any man.

Note. As before good, imports degree; and is not a monodone: (as good—so good.)

II. As-Second Class.

1. As is a monodone where it is used much in the sense of, "in the character of;" as, John came as a prophet.

That is, he came in the capacity of a prophet.

Or,

As is a monodone of the second class, where the thing which is mentioned after as, is the very one which is mentioned in the superior mono; as, John came as a prophet.

John, and the prophet are the same person.

As, negatively treated.

1. As is not a monodone where it is used in the sense of when; as, "As John came in, I went out."

That is, when John came in, I went out.

2. As is not a monodone where it imports degree; as, this paper is as white as snow.

That is, so white.

MONOIZING RULES.

RULE I.

EVERY cordictive proposition, whether plenary, or implenary, constitutes a distinct mono; as, [A certain man planted a vineyard,] (and , set a hedge,) (and , digged a place,) (and , built a tower,) (and , let it out,) (and , went.)

RULE II.

EVERY monodone gives a new mono; as, "John is as tall (as his brother.")

RULE III.

EVERY corme to which no clade can be conjected, constitutes an entire mono; as,

Ah		hark	hurrah	pish
aha		ha	huzza	poh
alas		ha ha ha	hist	pshaw
all hail		ha hah	hush	pugh
alack		hail	io	soho
avaunt	-	hey	lo	see*
begone		heigh	look	strange*
behold*		heighho	mum	tush *
eh		heyday .	\boldsymbol{O}	what*
fie		ho	off*	welcome
foh		holla	oh -	welladay.

RULE IV.

EVERY address whether of one, or more words, constitutes a distinct mono; as, (John,) come here, (my good child.)

EXERCISES IN MONOIZING.

Specimen. It is with the priest, as it is with the people.

1. It is, one mono. Rule I.

2. with the priest, one mono. Rule II.

3. as it is, one mono. Rule II.

4. with the people, one mono. Rule II.

REMARK.

To the monos which are given by the monodones of the first class, Rule I. is applicable. Rule I. is applicable to these monos because they all contain a cordiction. Still, the pupil should apply Rule II. to all these cases. He should do so because it is important to make him familiar with the monodone character of those words which give new monos.

EXERCISES,

To be monoized exactly according to the preceding specimen.

y

As.

SPECIMEN.

As it was dark, he fell.

1. He fell, one mono. Rule I.

2. as it was dark, one mono. Comment I.

1. "As is a monodone where it is used in the sense of because; as, He fell because it was dark.

REMARKS.

1. As is not a monodone where it is a corm, a foundation word, in the mono.

2. As is a corme when same, such, much, or many is in a preceding mono.

EXERCISES.

(The pupil should *repeat* the *rules* in all instances—a mere reference to them is not sufficient.)

1. "I cannot aid him, as I have not the means."

2. "Ye shall be as Gods,

3. "He threw the ball as far as we could see."

4. "As it rains I cannot go."

5. "Men are more happy as they are less involved in public concerns."

6. "He is as good (as any man, ")

7. "As , , with the people, so with the priest."

8. "As your day is, so shall it be unto you."

The last two examples are bad. They should read thus:

As it is with the people, it is with the priest. As your day is, it shall be unto you.

Fully Corrected.

1. [It is with the priest] (as it is) (with the people.)

2. [Your strength shall be] (unto you,) (as your day is.)

1. John came as a prophet. (2.)

2. They came to me as pupils. (3.)

3. He came as a witness. (2.)

4. I shall use this stick as a pen. (2.)

5. I address you as his friend. (2.)

6. John went into the field as a soldier. (3.)

7. I meet you as a friend. (2.)

1 1 1

8. As he rose, he met his friend.

9. This water is as cold as ice

10. Give , me such fruit as I purchased.

REMARK.

It may be well for the pupil to repeat the monoizing of the preceding *exercises*; and, in the repetition, he should give that comment on as, which applies to his case.

LESSON IX.

- 1 When is as well as a monodone?
- 2. When is again a monodone?
- 3. When is being a monodone?
- 4. When is but a monodone?
- 5. When is both a monodone?

THE TEXT.

1. As well as.

1. As well as is a monodone when it is used much in the sense of and; as, It is your duty as well as , , mine, John, as well as his brother , , was there.

2. Again.

2. Again is a monodone where it is used somewhat in the sense of moreover, or furthermore; as, "Again, the Lord shall judge his people."

3. Being.

3. Being is a monodone where it is used in the sense, and in the place of as, or because; as, You may remain

being you have come, Being he was wise, we gave heed to his counsel. This use of being is not good.

4. But.

1. But is a monodone where it indicates that what follows is somewhat different from, or opposite to, what precedes; as, "John is good; but his brother is bad," "Man shall not live upon bread alone, but upon every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of God."

The word is a different kind of food from bread; hence, but is well used.

2. But is a monodone where it imports that the result is contrary to, or different from, what might be expected; as, Henry came to Boston; but he did not remain here an hour, I will call; but I cannot stay one minute.

1. But imports that Henry's not remaining in Boston

a longer time, was contrary to what was expected.

2. But, in the second instance, indicates that the fact of my not being able to stay long enough to make a visit, was contrary to the expectations of him to whom I spake.

3. But is a monodone when it is used in the sense of except, or be out; as, All the boys went but John, Mr.

Jones has but one son.

1. In the first, it is the province of but to exclude, to take out, one boy. Hence the affirmation, all the boys went, is corrected by the subtracting mono, "but John."

2. In the second, the idea is that he has no son, if you take away one son. The object of has is not son expressed, but son understood; as, Jones has no son, but one son.

That is, you exclude, take away, remove, one son, that the affirmation "Jones has no son," may not include this one son. This one son being excluded, taken out of the reach of the affirmation, "Jones has no son," it follows that Jones has one son: this affirmation does not include "Jones has no son but or except the *excluded* one. one son.

That is, exclude, take away, one son, and Jones has no son.

1. "He is but a man."

That is, he is nothing but a man. In other words, he is no being except a man.

That is, if you except, exclude, remove man, he is no

being whatever.

2. "He gave me but a cent."

That is, he gave me nothing but, or except, a cent. In other words, he gave me nothing, if you take out, remove, exclude, or except, a cent.

3. "He hath not grieved me but in part."

That is, he hath grieved me in nothing if you except

he hath grieved me in part.

In other words, if you except, remove, or take out that he hath grieved me in part, he hath indeed grieved me in nothing at all.

4. "I cannot but consider it a good work."

That is, I cannot consider it any work, if you exclude, remove, or take away, that I consider it a good work.

5. "Then said he unto his disciples, it is impossible but that offences will come; but wo unto them through whom they come."

"It is impossible but that offences will come."

That is, it is impossible for anything to come except

that. Except what ?--offences will come.

The word, anything, as here used, means two things only. One of the two things, is that offences will come, and the other of the two, is this, that offences will not come. Now, there are two things which belong to every event of which we can think; namely, the happening of the event, and the not happening of it. In the above case, the not happening is said to be impossible. In what way is this said? In saying that neither event can take place if you exclude, remove, take out, except, the happening of offences. For instance: John must either appear, or not appear, at the bar of God. Now, if you make it impossible for him not to appear, he must appear.

It is impossible but that John will appear at the bar of

God.

That is, it is impossible for John to do anything but, except, appear at the bar of God. In other words, it is impossible for John to do either thing, if you except, take

out, or exclude his appearing at the bar of God. Why is it impossible for him to do either thing? There are but two things which he can do; one is, to stay away, the other is, to appear. The expression makes it impossible for him to stay away. Hence it is said that he can do just nothing at all, if you except, exclude, his appearing. John must, however, do one of these things: he must either stay away from the bar of God, or he must appear at it. And, in order to show that John will appear at this bar, the sentence is so constructed as to express the impossibility of his staying away.

It is impossible but that John will appear at the bar of

God.

[It is impossible] (for John to do anything) (but that) (he will appear) at the bar) (of God.)

But is employed only when the sentence is in an implenary state; as, it is impossible but that John will appear at the bar of God.

When the sentence is rendered plenary, except is employed; as, it is impossible for John to do anything except

that, he will appear at the bar of God.

As but is not suited to the plenary state of the sentence, so except is not to the implenary.

It is impossible except that John will appear at the bar

of God.

It is impossible but that offences will come.

Plenary. [It is impossible] (for offences to do anything) (but that,) (offences will come.)

Now, offences must either come, or stay away. And, to indicate that they will come, the sentence is so constructed as to express the impossibility of their staying away. Offences must do something. There are but two things which they can possibly do; and one of these two things, the writer says, they will not do. This negative idea is expressed by saying that it is impossible for them to do anything, either thing, if you exclude, except, the affirmative thing.

6. (" If I could but return,) [I should be happy."]

That is, if I could do anything but return, I should be happy. I am so very home-sick that I have not the power

to do anything at all, except to return. If I could do anything but return, I should be happy. But the homesick fever is so hot that I can do nothing but, except, return. How many things must I do? I must do one of two; I must either stay where I am, or I must return. The home-sick fever is so severe that I cannot remain where I now am: hence if you except, exclude, my return, I can do nothing at all:

[I should be happy] (if I could do anything but return.) It is worthy of remark that although but is here used in the sense of except, yet except cannot be substituted for but, while the sentence is in its implenary state.

[I should be happy] if I could except return.

The moment, however, the sentence is rendered plenary, except can be substituted for but.

[I should be happy] (if I could do anything) (except return.)

That is, if I could do anything when the return is

taken from me, I could be happy.

It may be replied to all this that, "but, in this case, is an adverb belonging to return. But can here be exchanged for only, hence but is an adverb. If I could only return, I should be happy." To this, I reply that equivalence in sense is not equivalence in grammar. Was it so, no, not, and nothing, would all be nouns, all adjectives, and all adverbs. I saw no thing, I saw not a thing, I saw nothing.

Now, the adjective, no, the adverb not, and the noun,

nothing, are all negatives in meaning.

That this view of the word, but, will be opposed, admits of little doubt. But that it can be confuted, admits of great doubt.

Can but, in the following instance, be turned into only?

"It is impossible but that offences will come."

7. "He had but a little heat."

That is, he had no heat, except a little heat.

It may be said by the old school grammarians, that but is here an adverb: they may urge the doctrine, in support of this position, that only can be substituted for but; as, he had only a little heat.

If the mere possibility of exchanging but for only, is

authority for calling but an adverb, but is an adverb in the following instances:

All went but James. I have but six apples. All went only John. I have only six apples.

Now, it is admitted by all the old school grammarians, that but, in the instance, "All went but John," is a preposition. In the following, however, but is called by the same class of grammarians, an adverb:

"I have but six apples."

If but is an adverb, what does it qualify? Does but qualify have? This cannot be, since this would change the sense of the sentence, in a very material point of view. This may be seen by substituting only for but, and by attempting to make it qualify have.

"I only have six apples."

If only qualifies have, the idea is that I only have

them. That is, I do nothing but have them.

But it may be said by some that but, or only, qualifies six. To this it may be replied that it is impossible to qualify any word whatever which has a fixed, an immutable, meaning. The word good, may be qualified; as, very good, unusually good fruit. But how can six be made to mean any more, or any less than six units?

8. "Man but for this were active to no end."

That is, man except it were for this, were active to no end.

Here but introduces a poeclad, namely, "it were,"

It may be said, however, that but cannot be used when this poeclad is expressed; as, "Man but 'it were' for this, were active to no end."

That the introduction of this poeclad, subtracts from the euphony of the sentence, is admitted. Still this does not prove that this poeclad is not understood. It is an important principle in our language that certain words which are synonymous, or nearly so, please the ear by a full expression of all the words, or by an omission of some of them. For instance:

John was taught , grammar.
 John was instructed in grammar.

When instructed is used, the steroclade, in, must be expressed, for the omission of in offends the ear:

John was instructed grammar.

Again. "John was offered a dollar for his knife."

When this sentence is rendered plenary, offered offends the ear; as, John was offered with a dollar for his knife.

When the sentence is written in the plenary state, presented must be used in the place of its synonyme, offered; as, John was presented with a dollar for his knife.

Both.

1. "He is both virtuous, and brave."

He is both virtuous, and he is brave.

The mono which both gives, is this, "and he is brave." To this mono, both belongs. Both is employed to indicate the subjunction of an entire mono; and the mind is so much under the influence of this indication, that it would be much disappointed, was this predicted mono withheld; as, He is both virtuous.

SPECIMEN

Of monoizing under these comments.

1. "The want of a correct history of this country, has long been a subject of complaint among those who have charge of the public schools, as well as

, , , (, ,) among those who teach in these institutions."

1. The want has long been a subject, one mono, Rule 1.

2. of a correct history, one mono, Rule II.

3. of this country, one mono, Rule II.

4. of complaint, one mono, Rule II.

5. among those persons, one mono, Rule II.

6. who have charge, one mono, Rule I.

7. of the public schools, one mono, Rule II.

8. as well as it has long been a subject, one mono, Rule II., and Comment I.

As well as is a monodone where it is used much in the sense of and, or add.

9. of complaint, one mono, Rule II.

- 10. among those persons, one mono, Rule II.
- 11. who teach , , one mono, Rule I. 12. in these institutions, one mono, Rule II.

EXERCISES.

- 1. (" Being you have come,) [you may remain.")
- 2. ["You may remain.] (being you have come.")
- 3. ("Being you have written this copy well,) [I will set you another."]
 - 4. He is willing as well as , , able.
 - 5. John, as well as I , , is ready.
 - 6. Henry is both wise, and , good.
- 7. And both Jesus, and his mother , , was there.
 - 8. He is both virtuous, and , , brave.
 - 9. He was virtuous, and , , brave both.

Note.—Whenever both is a monodone, it conveys a strong allusion to some interrogation, to which the sentence in which both is used, is an answer: "Was he virtuous?" "He was both virtuous, and , , brave."

Still, where both is the last word in the reply to the implied question, as in the ninth example, the mono which both indicates, is that to which and belongs.

For, hence, however, not only, neither, either, otherwise, provided, then, thence, now, since, still, yet, &c.

1. For is a monodone except where it closes a mono; as, the books have been spoken for.

2. Hence is a monodone when it is used in the sense

of therefore; as, It rains-hence I cannot go.

3. However is a monodone when it is used in the sense of but; as, the gentleman came to Philadelphia—however he soon left. Or, he soon left, however.

4. Not only is a monodone where it is followed by but; as, He is not only learned but he is good. (Not only

belongs to the mono; "but he is good.")

5. Neither is a monodone when it is followed by nor; as, He is neither good, nor learned. Neither belongs to the mono, "nor is he learned."

6. Either is a monodone when it is followed by or; as, He was either with John, or with James.

Either belongs to the mono, "or he was."

- 7. Otherwise is a monodone where it implies an alternative; as, "Man will be saved if he repents; otherwise he will be lost forever." Man will repent if God gives him power—otherwise he will remain in his sins. God will give man power to repent—otherwise the Bible is not true.
- S. Provided is a monodone when it is used in the sense of if; as, We shall be there, provided it is a good day.
- 9. Then is a monodone where it is used in the sense of therefore, or "in that case;" as,

1. "It rains; then I cannot go."

2. "Men transgressed the law." "What, then, was to be done?" (What therefore was to be done?)

3. "If all this is so, then man has a natural freedom."

4. "Now, then, be all thy weighty cares away."

Then, and therefore, generally divide their monos into two parts.

- 10. Thence is a monodone when it is used in the sense of therefore; as, Goodness alone, gives peace—thence all should be good.
- 11. Since is a monodone where it is used in the sense of for this reason; as,

(" Since I cannot return) [I must remain."]
 [" Man must die] (since he is not immortal.")

- 3. ["You should take your umbrella] (since it may rain.")
- 4. ("Since none (but a fool) can make a fire;) (and since John can make a fire,) [it follows that] (John is a fool.")
- 12. Now is a monodone where it is nearly equal to "from this fact," "in view of this, or that thing," "after all," "things being as they are," "you must know that."

Now is a monoclade in all cases where it is not used in the sense of the mono, "at this time," or, "at that time."

1. "Not this man, but Barabbas; now, Barabbas was a robber."

Here now has the sense of "you must know that" Barabbas was a robber.

2. Now, how is any man to learn the will of his Maker, except from the Bible, and his conscience?

Here now seems to have the sense of "things being as they are," or, "man being as he is, limited in intellect."

Man being as he is, "how is any man to learn the will of his Maker, except from the Bible, and his conscience?"

3. "Now, if you will reform, John, all these things will soon be forgotten; and you will soon be restored to good standing among us."

Now, here, has the sense of after all. After all, "if you will reform," &c.

4. "Now, I know that the Lord will do me good, seeing I have a Levite for my priest."

Now, seems to indicate that the means by which Micah knows that the Lord would do him good, is some special event which has been mentioned, or which is to be mentioned in connection with this verse. Now is here nearly synonymous with from this fact.

From this fact, I know that the Lord will do me good. What fact? "I have a Levite for my priest."

5. " Now, we know that thou hast a devil."

That is, we know this from the fact which we have just witnessed.

6. "Now, I beseech you, my dear brother, to refrain from this vice."

In view of the dreadful consequences, I beseech you, my dear brother, to refrain from this vice.

13. Still is a monodone where it is used in the sense of nevertheless; as, Henry has been taught—still he is ignorant, John has possession still—still he has no right

to the property, the call is still made—still men remain in their sins.

14. Yet is a monodone where it is used much in the sense of but, nevertheless, notwithstanding, and indicates that the result is different from what might have been looked for; as,

1. "He eats heartily; yet he has no strength."

- 2. "He gives wise counsel to others; yet his own deeds are unwise acts."
 - 3. "They have promised; yet they do not perform."
- 4. "They still hold possession; yet they have no right to the property."
- 15. Else is a monodone when it is used in the sense of otherwise; as,

1. I must get his consent; else I cannot go.

- 2. "Thou desirest not sacrifice; else would I give it."
- 3. "Repent, or *else* will I come to thee quickly." Or is redundant.
- 1. Else may be a metaclade; as, What man else can be found? (other.) Who else can he be? What else will you have?
 - 2. Else may be a clonoclade; as, Where else can we go?
- 16. Nay is a monodone where it is used in the sense of more; as, he asked me for my purse—nay, he demanded it.
- 1. Nay is a clonoclade where it has a negative import; as, "I tell you nay—but, except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish."

2. Nay may be a corm; as, "His answer was nay," "He that will not when he may, when he would, he shall

have nay."

17. No is a monodone where it is used in the sense of nay, where nay means more; as, "No man could bind him—no, not with chains." (No, not any man could bind him) (with chains.)

18. Again, Farther, Further, Furthermore. These words appear to be monodones when the sentence is so

implenary that they indicate addition, rather than repetition; as,

- "And again, the Lord shall judge his people."
- 1. "For we know him that hath said, vengeance belongeth unto me, and I will recompense, saith the Lord."

And again, "The Lord shall judge his people."

Paul wished to establish the fact that vengeance belongs exclusively to God. To do this, he brings, in the first place, the following words:

"Vengeance belongeth unto me."

In the next place, he adduces the following:

"I will recompense."

Having twice drawn proof from the Lord himself to sustain the position that God only, has the right of punishing his people, Paul says,

And I again prove this fact from the following scripture: "The Lord shall judge his people."

Again, is not a monodone, but a clonoclade, an adverb belonging to prove understood.

LESSON X.

- 1. What is the etymology, and meaning of ple-ol-o-gy?
- 2. What is the etymology, and meaning of lei-pol-o-gy?
- 3. What is said of and in this lesson?
- 4. Have you examined all the cases in which monos, and sentences should be left in the implenary state?
 - 5. Can you give six of these cases?
 - 6. What is the etymology, and meaning of no-e-ton?

THE TEXT.

PLE-OL-O-GY, AND LEI-POL-O-GY.

1 PLE-OL-O-GY is derived from pleo, full, and logos, doc-

trine, and means the principles on which monos, and sen-

tences should be written in the plenary state.

2. Lei-pol-o-gy is made from lei-po, to omit, to leave out, and logos, doctrine, and signifies the principles on which monos, and sentences should be left in the implenary state.

REMARKS.

As the ease, accuracy, and despatch with which a person uses our language, depend, in a high degree, upon his knowledge of these two cardinal doctrines, I have thought it important to give them appropriate technical names. And to enable the pupil to give these great doctrines, that attention which their magnitude demands, I

have made a full development of them.

A desire for despatch is a leading trait in the character of men; and, in few things, is this trait more obvious than in their contrivance for brevity in the communication of thought. Language is the distinguished medium through which mind travels to mind. And, as though this medium was a hollow cylinder through which ideas roll from mind to mind, men have sedulously studied despatch by abridging its length. There are instances, however, in which this medium cannot be abridged by an omission of any of its parts—and, while pleology respects these cases, leipology respects those in which it may, and should, be abridged by the omission of both words, and monos.

The parts which are omitted under the doctrine of leipology, are called no-e-tons. This word is made from no-e-tos, which means what is perceived by the mind without falling under the senses. A no-e-ton, then, is that word of a mono, or that mono of a sentence, which the mind perceives without the aid of the ear, or eye; as,

[John gave (, me) a book,] (, last evening.)

The mind perceives the to before me, and the on before last, although these words are not there. To, and on are no-e-tons.

That is, these words are the words which the mind perceives without either seeing, or hearing them.

To, and on are no-e-tons of monos. In the following instance, "it was," is a no-e-ton of a sentence:

"John got what he wanted:"

[John got what thing] (it was) (which he wanted.)

Thing, and which are noetons of monos.

I. PLEOLOGY.

Pleology respects the principles on which a mono, and a sentence should be written in the plenary state.

PRINCIPLES.

1. Every mono should have all its words, and every sentence, all its monos, expressed, where the implenary state of either, would produce ambiguity, or mar the euphony.

Illustrations.

1. "Have we not power to lead about a wife as well as other apostles?"

The omission of the word, wife, would produce much ambiguity, and very much mar the euphony of the sentence:

Have we not power to lead about a — as well as other apostles?

Still the omission of the words after the word, apostles, improves the euphony of the sentence without producing any ambiguity:

Have we not power to lead about a wife as well as other apostles have power to lead about a wife?

In the following, the words that bear the same relation which the word, wife, bears in the preceding sentence, are omitted with great propriety:

"Mine answer to them that examine me, is this:
Have we not power to eat , and drink , ?"

But this sentence is implenary to a much greater extent than that which is produced by the omission of the words that would express what we have power to eat, and drink; as, bread, meat, wine, water, &c. This may be seen from the following:

"Have we not power to eat ,) (and , , , , , , drink , ?)

Plenary: Have we not power to eat food, and have we not power to drink drink?

3. "By grace are ye saved through faith: and that not

of yourselves, it is the gift of God."

The implenary state of this sentence produces so much ambiguity that even commentators have not been able to agree among themselves respecting its true import:

(By grace) [are ye saved] (, , ,) (through faith;) (and that , , not) (of yourselves) (, it is the gift) (of God.)

As the sentence now stands, men are saved directly by grace, and directly by faith. But how can a man be saved by both? That man who was killed with a sword, never was killed with an axe! Some mono is understood after

the pleocorm.

The second ambiguity in this sentence, arises from the ellipses after that. "And that"—And that what? And that grace is not of yourselves—or and that faith is not of yourselves? Or is it neither? What is the genuinc, theological, no-e-ton after that? If grace is the legitimate no-e-ton, that is properly used, for that refers to the first thing mentioned. But, if faith is the true no-e-ton, that should give place to this, for this refers to the last thing mentioned. It appears to me, however, that salvation may be the true theological no-e-ton: if so, that is used with marked propriety:

[Ye are saved] (by grace) (which cometh) (through faith;) (and that salvation is not of yourselves;) (for it is the gift) (of God.) (See Part III., p. 30.)

In the following, the omission of the demi-mono, "to see," produces no ambiguity, but it mars the euphony:

"But these were more noble than those of Thessalonica, searching the scriptures daily , , whether these things were so."

II. LEIPOLOGY

RESPECTS the principles on which monos, and sentences should be left in the implenary state.

General Principle.

Every mono, and every sentence, should be left in the *implenary* state when this state neither produces ambiguity, nor mars the euphony.

EXAMPLES OF IMPLENARY MONOS.

- 1. [He drank water] (, last evening.)
- 2. Give , (, me) some water.]
- 3. [He rode] (to town) (, last week.)
- 4. [Henry eat] (with his brother) (, yesterday.)

Let the pupil supply the no-e-tons in the above cases. That is, let him supply those words which he finds through his judgment only.

EXAMPLES OF IMPLENARY SENTENCES.

- 1. "I have some recollection of my father's being (
 , ,) (, a judge.")
- 2. "John had an opportunity (of viewing the scene) (for , ,) (, ,) (above an hour.")
- 3. [This book has been compiled] (with a special reference) (to the public reading schools) (of this city.)

[It is the result] (of an attempt to supply the want) (which has long been a subject) (of complaint) (among those) (whom the citizens (of Boston) have charged) (with the general superintendence) (of their public schools;) (as well as , , , , ,) (, , ,) (with those) (who are appointed) (to the immediate instruction) (of them.)

4. (By grace) [are ye saved] (, ,) (through faith.)

Let the pupil supply the no-e-ton monos, in the above sentences. He may also supply the no-e-ton words in the implenary monos.

That, and that only, is a no-e-ton which is a legitimate

member of the mono, or of the sentence. There is much danger of the pupil's introducing illegitimate no-e-tons, for much attention is necessary for him to find the legitimate ones. Before the word, hand, in the following sentence, the old school grammarians, who are governed by the Latin, and Greek rules, supply as to, he, and being:

(And he came forth] (, , bound) (, , hand,) (and , , ,) (, , foot.")

As follows: [He came forth,] (he being bound) (as to

his hand, and he being bound) (as to his foot.)

"Being," and "as to" are illegitimate, spurious, no-e-tons: these are not the words which the mind perceives through the sense of the sentence, but through a common Latin rule which has no application in this case. "Being," and "as to" change the sense of the proposition. "Being" indicates that his being bound was the cause of his coming forth; and "as to" carries the idea of concerning! He was bound hand and foot, therefore he came forth!

A little reflection will show that the legitimate no-e-tons

are "while he was," and "at."

[He came forth while] (he was bound) at the hand; (and he came forth while) (he was bound) (at the foot.)

If the word, or mono, which is supplied, does not give the exact sense, the word, and mono are spurious no-e-tons.

"He was bound as to his hand, and foot."

"As to" changes the idea of place into that of concerning. "Concerning," the only idea expressed by "as to," does not respect place, but the act of the mind; as, "We have not been able to learn anything as to the number killed and wounded."

In the above instance, the idea is not that of mental concernment, but that of place: not, however, the place of the mind, but the place of the grave-clothes. And he that was dead came forth, bound, hand, and foot, with grave-clothes.

And.

1. And may give a pleocorm, and a poeclad; but it can never give a ne-poeclad; as, [" And they had then a notable prisoner,] (called Barabbas.")

2. When and is the first word in a full, a complete period, it gives the pleocorm—but if and is not the first word in the sentence, it gives a poeclad; as, [The chief priests took the silver pieces,] (and said.)

3. When the same predicate belongs to both persons, or things, the poeclad which and gives should be left in the implenary state; as, ["Paul (and Silas", ", ")]

sang praises (to God.")

The predicate is "sang praises to God." And, as this predicate belongs to both Paul and Silas, the poeclad given by and, should be implenary. If, however, the same predicate does not belong to both, the poeclad given by and, should not be implenary; as, ["Jesus stood] (before the governor;) (and the governor asked him.")

What is here said, predicated, of Jesus, is not predicated of the governor. It is predicated of Jesus that he stood before the governor. But it is predicated of the governor

that he asked Jesus a question.

4. When different things are predicated of the same person, the poeclad given by and, should generally be left in the implenary state; as, [And he cast down the silver pieces,] (and , departed,) (and , went,) (and , hanged himself.)

5. When and falls before of, in, with, or any other member of the second class of monodones, the poeclad given by and, should be left in the implenary state; as,

[I heard] of John, (and , ,) (of Joseph.)

REMARK.—The member of the second class, before which and falls, is often understood; as, I heard of John, (and , ,) (, Joseph,) "Are ye come out as against a thief, with swords, (and , , , , ,) (, staves?")

REMARKS.

Perhaps the common aphorism, "what is everybody's business is nobody's," is as strikingly exemplified in the general neglect with which the language of any nation is treated, as in anything in which men have a community of interest. The abuses which a language suffers, are rarely corrected: they are permitted to continue till that ear on which they at first grate, loses its power to distinguish between harmony and discord. And, as what is

right in sound, is just in grammar, the true genius of the language, is often disregarded even by the best scholars. The English language might be much improved: and, was it not that what is the business of everybody, is that of nobody, we might hope for important simplifications in our vernacular tongue. As it is, little, or nothing can be expected but a continuation of such changes as deform our language by a total disregard to its grammatical principles. It is not my intention to mention the numerous instances which these remarks embrace. It becomes necessary, however, to introduce one in which we depend, not upon the language employed, but upon the nature of the subject on which we speak, for what we wish to express. For instance: "John, and James are good boys."

It is here said that John are good boys, and that James are good boys! The writer, however, depends upon his readers to correct this error in the expression, from the nature of the subject itself. That this is bad English, may be proved from supplying the ellipsis which even all the old school grammarians admit: John are good

boys; and James are good boys.

Again. "John, and James write letters."

By rendering these monos plenary, it will be seen that the sentence is not English:

John write letters; and James write letters.

Nothing is more obvious than that write can have no syntax relation with "John." We do not say John write, but John writes.

Can it be replied that it is not pretended that write has a syntax relation with John? Why, John is said to be in the nominative case to write, and write is said to be a verb of the plural number, agreeing in number with the nominative, John! But, as write is of the plural, and John, of the singular, how is it possible for write to agree in number with John? Can W. agree in opinion with J. when W.'s opinion is entirely different from J.'s?

It may be replied, however, that write agrees with John and brother, in number. If write agrees with John and brother too, it certainly agrees with John. Yet, how, yea, how can write, which is plural, agree in num-

ber with John, which is singular? How can two men agree in opinion about the value of a certain house, when one of the two thinks it worth \$8,000, and the other, \$4,000 only?

With a view to an impartial investigation of this subject, it will be necessary to settle, in the first place, whether there are *ellipses* in those constructions in which and falls between two corms or nouns, of the singular number. And, as a preliminary step in the decision of this point, it may be well to see whether there are ellipses where and falls between corms of the plural number:

- 1. "Girls, and boys are human beings."
- 2. " Girls, and boys were present."
- 3. "Girls, and boys write copies."
- 4. "Girls, and boys have books.,"

Must not every grammarian admit that the following is the true rendering of these sentences?

- 1. "Girls are human beings; and boys" are human beings.
 - 2. "Girls were present; and boys" were present.
 - 3. "Girls write copies; and boys" write copies.
 - 4. "Girls have books; and boys" have books.

Now, as it must be allowed that this rendering is consistent with the very genius of the doctrine of *ellipsis* in *English* sentences, how can it be said that the following sentences have no ellipses?

- 1. A girl, and a boy are human beings.
- 2. A girl, and a boy were present.
- 3. A girl, and a boy write copies.
- 4. A girl, and a boy have books.

But, say the old school grammarians, as the allowing of *ellipses* in these sentences, produces a gross incongruity in one instance, between the *language*, and the *sense*, and a gross violation of the first rule in our common grammars in the others, no ellipsis can be allowed. If an ellipsis is allowed in the first instance, the writer will be made to say that *one* girl is two, or more human *beings!* This, however, is the case, whether the *ellipses* are allowed or not:

1. "A girl, and a boy are human beings."

1. What is the predicate of this sentence? That is, what is the thing, or fact, which is affirmed? The predi-

cate is, "human beings."

2. Of what, or of whom, is this the predicate? In other words, to what, or to whom, is the fact of being "human beings," ascribed? If I say, "John is a thief," it is predicated, or said, of John, that he is a thief.

And, if I say, "John is thirty thieves," it is predicated

of John, that he is thirty thieves.

1. Is anything said, or predicated, of a girl, in the following sentence?

"A girl, and a boy are human beings."

2. Is there anything said, or predicated, of a boy, in the following sentence?

"A girl, and a boy are human beings."

What is this predicate? are "human beings." A girl, yes, one girl, then, is said to be human beings, even with-

out allowing any ellipsis!

It may be replied, however, that nothing is predicated of the girl separately from the boy, and nothing, of the boy, separately from the girl. In answer, it may be said that, if nothing is predicated of these two persons separately, there is nothing at all predicated of them. I challenge all the learning which is in the heads and books of men, to show that, a sentence comprising but one verb, whether that verb is simple, or compound, can predicate anything of two things, unless these two things are embraced in one, and the same noun, or corm! For instance, The pens are good, We are pupils.

It is a truth which is worthy of the admiration of the philologist, that the verb which affirms of John, cannot affirm of James unless both individuals are embraced in one, and the same corm, or noun! If these individuals are mentioned in different words, whatever is said, predicated, of them, must be said, must be predicated, in dif-

ferent monos; as, "John, and James are sick."

That is, John is sick; and James is sick.

"John, and James are sick."

Something is here affirmed of John; and something is affirmed of James. Are, however, makes but one affirmation! Here are two persons, John and James: and, that

something may be affirmed of both, there must be two Are makes but one affirmation—and this affirmations! one affirmation concerns John only. Hence, if there is not an are understood, nothing whatever is said of James!

 ["Girls, (and boys , , ,) are huma
 ["A girl, and a boy are human beings."] , ,) are human beings."

The objection which the old school grammarian offers to allowing ellipses in the second sentence, is founded upon the incongruity of making one being two beings. I have shown, however, that this incongruity does not spring from allowing the ellipsis: I have proved that this incongruity, this want of sense, exists even when the sentence is considered a plenary paragraph! But an ellipsis does not depend upon the sense of a sentence: an ellipsis depends upon the syntax genius of the sentence. In the two following sentences, the sense is the same; yet, in the first, there is an ellipsis; in the second, none:

1. ["I gave (, John) an apple."]

2. ["I gave an apple] (to John.")

What, is a numeral difference to decide upon cases of ellipses? Impossible. If a difference in number could exert any influence over cases of ellipses, the mono which than gives, might be plenary, or implenary, according to the number of the corm:

1. "John is taller (than we

2. "John is taller (than I.")

This incongruity of which the old-school grammarians complain, must exist as long as our language remains incompetent to express distinctly, what it now leaves to the nature of the subject to decide:

1. "Six, and six are twelve."

2. "The names of the men, killed, were Johnson, Stephenson, Jones, and Nathans."

3. "The names of the two prisoners, were Janeway,

and Lewis."

1. In the first, it is affirmed that, six is twelve!

2. In the second, it is affirmed that, the names are Johnson! If, then, the expressed idea is to be regarded, the word, Johnson, is more than one name!

Nor is this all; for it is also affirmed, and that too with an exactness which excludes ambiguity, that all the men who were killed, were named Johnson! "The names of the men, killed, were Johnson!"

Nor indeed is this all; for, strange as it may appear, this very sentence affirms, absolutely, that all the men were named Stephenson, that they were all named Jones, and

that they were all named Nathans!

This confusion is not the offspring of any ellipsis: it is the effect of an obvious incompetency in the language to

express the just ideas in the case.

To remove this incompetency, some means must be contrived for making two singular corms precisely synonymous in syntax, with one plural one. Until this is done, this constant catachresis, this desperate abuse of lan-

guage, must continue.*

Will it be said that this contrivance is found in and? Does and make two singular corms synonymous in syntax, with one plural one? How, in what way? By indicating that the things mentioned by the two singular corms, are to be taken together; as, John, and his brother, are coming.

The word, and, say the old school grammarians, indicates that John is to be taken, not alone, but with his brother; and that the brother is to be taken, not alone, but with John. What, then, is the difference between

and, and with?

1. "John, and his brother are coming."

2. "John with his brother, is coming."

Does not with indicate that John and the brother are to be taken together? Why, then, do we not say—John with his brother, are coming! (Not is!) What now becomes of the doctrine upon which the verb is made plural when and occurs between two singular corms? If the

These instances are grossly contrary to the general usage of our

language in similar cases. (Cata, against, and chresis, use.)

^{*}A catachresis is a gross impropriety in speech. It is called by distinguished rhetoricians, a desperate abuse of words. It is the expressing of one idea by the name of another, which is incompatible with, and often contrary to it. "It is," says a distinguished writer, "when the speech is hard, strange, and unwonted."

doctrine, that the *verb*, the *gnomaclade*, should be *plural*, when the individuals denoted by *singular* corms, are taken, not separately, but *together*, is sound, then indeed the following are *correct English* sentences:

- 1. John with his sister were at church!
- 2. John were at church with his sister!
- 3. John with his mother are ill with a cold! (not is.)
- 4. A book with a pen have fallen!
- 5. A watch with its chain have been lost! (not has.)
- 6. A horse with his saddle have been found! (not has.)
- 7. The horse with his saddle were injured! (not was.)

Now, it is the very province of with to unite one thing to another, and thereby to compel the reader to take them together. Yet, even under this connection, two singular corms are not the syntax synonyme of one plural one. (Syn-o-nim.) How, then, can it be pretended that under that species of connection, which and indicates, two singular corms exert the same syntax influence over the verb, or gnomaclade which one plural corm exerts? With does bind one thing to another; as, a house with an iron roof. But and never, never, connects one thing with another thing, nor one word with another word. And signifies the subjunction, the addition, of an entire proposition, of an entire cordiction, to some proposition, to some cordiction, of superior rank, in the sentence, or paragraph; as,

"John, and his wife have six children."

This is an instance of gross catachresis. It is here affirmed that John has six children, and that his wife has six children. And, was it not that what belongs to the husband, belongs also to the wife, and vice versa, this paragraph would give these parents twelve children instead of six!

"John, and his wife have six children."

That is, John have six children, and his wife have six children.

The catachresis, this desperate abuse of have, still remains. Hence I deem it of some importance to subjoin a few observations upon this particular point:

It is contended that and actually connects two single individuals, and thus constitutes plurality; as, "He came forth, bound hand and foot."

"And," here, say the old school grammarians, connects

hand and foot, and thus makes them plural!

This is a curious doctrine indeed. What! is it necessary to connect the hand with the foot to make them two? Do not these limbs amount to two without being tied together?

These limbs, however, were not connected. Examine

the sentence:

"And he came forth, bound hand, and foot with grave-clothes."

Will it be pretended that the foot was bound to the

hand, or the hand to the foot? No.

What, then, does and connect? Does and connect the mere words, hand and foot? There is no connection, not one particle, between these two words. Take the following:

"Salt, and meat are very scarce."

Is there any connection between the words, salt and meat? None whatever. If and connects these words, there must be a connection between them. But there is no connection between them: hence and does not connect them. If, however, we remove and, the removal will produce a connection between these very words:

Salt meat is very scarce.

And, then, does not connect words: it separates them. To arrive at a just conclusion upon this subject, it will be necessary to settle a preliminary question: What does and mean? "And" is the sign of addition, the sign that something which follows and, is to be added to something which precedes and; as,

"I, and he are sick."
 "I, and thou are well."

Now, is the word, he, added to the word, I, or is the real person denoted by the word, he, added to the real person denoted by the word, I?

Neither is word added to word, nor person to person; but affirmation to affirmation. In other words, proposition

to proposition.

"The saddle, and horse were injured."

The old school grammarians parse and as a conjunction, connecting horse, and saddle. The very import of and stands directly opposed to this disposition of the word. This conjunction, or monoclade, means add. It is equal in import, to the verb, add. The reader, or hearer, then, understands from and, that he is to add something. Now, there can be nothing added where there is not something already presented to which an addition may be made. In the preceding sentence, the saddle is mentioned first—the saddle being introduced, the word, and, is employed as a sign of some addition. And the question is, what is it which is to be added? Is the real horse to be added to the real saddle? If so, we should find, not the saddle put upon the horse, but the horse upon the saddle! This theory works so ill in practice, that I believe even Mr. Murray himself would disown it! Let us, now, inquire whether it is the word, horse, which is to be added to the word, saddle. Upon this principle, the thing injured was not the saddle, but the word, saddle!

"The saddle, and horse were injured."

But, why add the word, horse, to the word, saddle?

"Why, that the noun, horse, may meet with the same

fate which the word, saddle, suffers."!

This would be plausible logic if the word, saddle, was injured—but as not one hair of the noun, saddle, is injured, I do not see the propriety of binding by means of this verbal girth, and, the noun, horse, to the noun, saddle, in order to procure some injury to the noun, horse! What, connect the signs in order to affect the things signified! This sort of philosophy would imprison the portrait to punish the criminal whom it represents! No, no—let us reject this chaff, and resort to the kernel.

"The saddle, and horse were injured."

That is, the saddle was injured; and the horse was injured. In other words, the saddle was injured, add that the horse was also injured. The author of the sentence first asserts in a plenary mono, that the saddle was injured. Having done this in a plenary mono, he says, add to the fact that the saddle was injured, the fact that the horse was also injured. The mono which and intro-

duces, is that which follows and, as may be seen by rendering both monos full:

[The saddle was injured;] and (the horse was injured.)

And, then, is a monoclade, and is used to introduce an additional mono into the sentence.

But I may be told that the introduction of this new mono, produces an error in the number of the gnomaclade, were.

To this I reply that the introduction of this new mono, demonstrates that the gnomaclade, or verb, should be in the *singular*, in all similar constructions:

1. I, and he are.

2. I, and thou are.

The use of are, for is, in the first, and are for art, in the second, sentence, is opposed to propriety in speech, and to solution in grammar. Are never can be made to have any syntax relation with he—he are! Nor can are hold any syntax relation with thou—thou are!

It is pretended, however, that *I*, and *he*, are united by and. Be it so, though it is not so. Now, if these two pronouns are united, they have become one—singular. Can the plural number be formed by putting two words

into one?

It matters not in what way I and he are united, since no union can render either one, or both plural. Will that union which may be produced between two chairs, by placing a string about a round of one, and then about a round of the other, produce plurality? Is there not plurality as much before the application of the string, as after? There are two chairs before the string is applied, and there are two after. The use of this string does not make the two single seats into one plural one! To make a chair plural, there must be as many as two seats in the same frame-work. The plural noun is one frame-work, not two; as, books, pens!

Now, "book," and "pen," cannot be considered plural simply because they happen to be used in the same sentence: these words cannot be put together in such a way as will constitute plurality. Nor can the real pen, and the real book be expressed in two words in such a manner as will

constitute plurality in grammar. For so long as these things are denoted by two distinct words, they are taken separately, both by the mind, and by the corms, the means employed to denote them; as, book, and pen. But plurality in grammar is found where two, or more things are seized at the same time, and by the same word; as, books.

When two, or more things are denoted separately, there is no plurality; as, "I, and he are, I, and thou are."

Here the individuals are denoted separately, hence, while, there appears, from a slight glance, to be but one affirmation in a sentence, there are in truth two. One is made by expressed words, the other by implied ones:—

[I, (and he ,) are,] [I, (and thou ,) are.]

Now, by rendering these monos plenary, we shall convince all of the gross error which we trust the world will gradually, and gladly correct:

1. [I are,] (and he are.)
2. [I are,] (and thou are.)

Corrected:

- 1. [I am,] (and he is.)
- 2. [I am,] (and thou art.)

But the monos of course should be left in their implenary state; as,

- 1. I, and he is.
- 2. I, and thou art.

Improper:

- 1. I, and he write.
- 2. He, and thou write.

Proper:

- 1. I, and he writes.
- 2. He, and thou writest.

Rendered plenary:

- 1. I write, and he writes.
- 2. He writes, and thou writest.

1. I, and he write.

2. He, and thou write.

By rendering these monos plenary, it is seen that they are actually bad English:

1. I write, and he write!

2. He write, and thou write!

In instances in which or occurs, the gnomaclade, or verb, is properly used: (no-ma-clade.)

I, or he is. He, or thou art.

Rendered plenary: I am; or he is, He is; or thou art.

In order to show the extent to which syntactical resolution is crippled by this total obliquity from the true genius of our language, I will parse these pronouns and verbs:

"I, and he are."

1. I, a pronoun, first person singular, and in the nominative case. But, to what verb? No one knows—every grammarian is mute! Can I be nominative to are! Is I are English?

2. He, a pronoun, third person, singular, and in the nominative case to are! He are! He are sick! This, if possible, is worse than Mr. Murray's "thirteenth, and

fourteenth editions!" Thirteenth apples!

DIRECTIONS.—In monoizing, the pupil should turn all these cases into correct English. This will teach him the true construction. But, for the present, at least, he should be taught to speak, and write, not according to truth, but according to custom.

Let the pupil monoize the following sentences.

1. "I, and they are well."

2. "They, and I were there."

3. "He, and thou have been ill."

4. "I, thou, and she were walking."

5. [I had a conversation] (with John;) (and , ,

,) (, his brother.)
6. "There was a difficulty (between John,) (and) (his brother.")

That is, there was a difficulty (between John,) (and

there was a difficulty) (between his brother.)

That this manner of analyzing this sentence, will appear to the old school grammarians, contrary to the genius of our language, and to common sense, also, is beyond all doubt. In what way, they will inquire, could there have been a difficulty between one person! "There was a difficulty between his brother."

This analysis, say they, makes two difficulties out of one! How so? This method of exegesis, does not make two difficulties; it does nothing more than speak of one difficulty twice. John, and his brother had a difficulty; and the above presentation of monos, first speaks of this one difficulty in relation to John, and secondly, in relation to his brother. And did not this one difficulty pertain to both? Where, then, is the impropriety of speaking of it in relation to both? That there is an apparent incongruity, arising from the use of between with a corm, or noun, of the singular numeration, is obvious. But this incongruity is not chargeable upon the rendering of the sentence plenary! This incongruity springs up the moment the sentence is presented even in its implenary state.

"There was a difficulty between John, and between his brother."

This incongruity must be charged to the *imperfection* of our language. This is one of the numerous instances in which the subject itself corrects the *language* employed upon it. The following is another case of this kind:

7. "He, together with his father, went to Boston."

A very little examination will show that there is the same incongruity between the number of he, and the meaning of together, which is produced in conjecting between to John.

Monoized: [He together went] (to Boston) (with his brother.)

Now, say the old school grammarians, it is good sense, and correct English, to say: they went together, And, there was a difficulty between them.

But, it is neither good sense, nor correct English, to say, John went together, and his brother went together. "There was a difficulty between John; and there was a

difficulty between his brother."

There are instances in which the true import of the language used, must be derived from the context of the sentence, from the nature of the case itself. It is first said, that John went together: after, it is expressly said that his brother accompanied him. "Together" requires as many as two: this sentence gives as many as two. But, says the objector, "it does not give two in the same mono." It is not necessary that both should be included in the same mono: together is satisfied with a plurality even though that plurality may be made out by the joint contribution of different monos."

In the following, there is the same species of incongruity of which the objector complains in the preceding:

[Every man went off] (but John.)

The pleocorm affirms that every man went away: not

one remained behind.

The nepoeclad, however, corrects the false impression which the pleocorm, when taken alone, is calculated to give. True, the reader must wait for this correction till he arrives at the nepoeclad.

Again. "We, then, as workers together with you, beseech you also, that ye receive not the grace of God in nain."

Now, will that method of analysis, which takes, "ye receive not the grace," by itself, as one mono, subject the grammarian to the charge of injustice to Paul? Or, can the grammarian be charged with impropriety of solution because this one mono when taken by itself, makes Paul beseech the Corinthians not to receive the grace. This apparent injustice, and the inaccuracy arising from it, is entirely removed by the conjective reading of the mono, "in vain."

Again. ["I can do all things] through Christ strength-

ening me."

Now, if Paul is to be judged from the pleocorm of his sentence, alone, he must be considered a very presumptu-

ous man. But, if the reader will wait till he shall have arrived at the clads, Paul will be found not arogant, but modest.

So in the following, the mind must wait till the apparent incongruity is destroyed by the information afforded by those monos which are indeed intended to remove the incongruity that one mono by itself often produces:

1. "John, and his brother went together."

2. "There was a difficulty between John, and his brother."

1. [John went together;] (and his brother went together.)

2. [There was a difficulty] (between John,) (and there was a difficulty) (between his brother.)

[John went (to Boston,) together] (with his brother.) [John went together.]

LESSON XI.

And so.

- 1. What is said of and so?
- 2. What is so, in so on?
- 3. So as a monodone is used much in the sense of what?
 - 4. Is so a monodone when it signifies mode, or state?
 - 5. What is so when it signifies the action itself?
 - 6. Does so ever signify degree?

As.

- 7. What example illustrates the first comment on as?
- 8. What is the second comment on as?
- 9. What instances are given in illustration of the third, and fourth comment?
- 10. Can you supply the no-e-tons in the example which illustrates the fifth comment on as?
- 11. In some cases where as signifies manner it may give what?

12. In what way are the poeclads "as appears," "as follows," rendered plenary?

13. What does as give when it comes before yet, and

seems to imply, "up to this time?"

14. Have you examined the ninth comment on as?

- 15. What does the word, it, represent, as used under this comment?
- 16. Have you given close attention to the tenth comment on as?

As-touching.

17. Is as-touching ever a monodone?

18. What does as-touching mean?

19. Can you give the substance of the remarks under the comment upon as-touching?

20. When may two words be taken as one part of

speech?

21. Are "accurately," and "with accuracy," synonymous in meaning? Are they synonymous in syntax also?

As-for.

22. What is said of as-for? What example is given to illustrate the monodone character of as-for?

23. Are as, and for taken as one part of speech in the following instance?

"Run, as for your life, Charles."

That is, run as you would run for your life.

24. Is as a monodone when it comes before if, or though?

25. Is as a monodone where it is a corm?

26. When may as be taken as a corm?

27. Have you examined what is said upon as, as used for which?

28. The negative poeclad given by as, is often what?

29. What is said of even after the fourteenth comment upon as?

30. When the superior mono is an implenary poeclad,

as may give what?

31. Is as ever found before the demi-mono?

32. Can as properly come before the demi-mono?

33. Why cannot as come before the demi-mono?

34. What word should be used?

35. When that is used, is the construction so changed that the demi-mono is destroyed?

As-well-as.

36. In what state are the poeclads which as-well-as gives?

37. Why is it not necessary to supply inferior monos?

38. Does as-well-as ever give a nepoeclad?

- 39. What is as-well-as in the first of the following sentences?
 - 1. "John, as-well-as his brother, writes letters."

2. "John wrote letters as well as his brother."

THE TEXT.

And-so.

1. The poeclad which and so gives, is generally plenary; as, John told me to go, and so I went, You called us, (and so we have come.)

2. So in "so on," is not a monodone, but a clonoclade;

as, We saw apples, peaches, plums, and so on.

That is, (and we saw other things) (which run so on.)

So on, or on so signifies that the other things run on in the same species, or kind, hence they belong to the same class with apples, &c.

So.

1. So, as a monodone, is used much in the sense of therefore, and generally gives a plenary poeclad; as, It rained very fast, (so I remained) at home.

2. When so signifies mode, or state, it is not a monodone, but a clonoclade; as, John reads well, so does his

brother, Henry is sick, so am I.

3. So is not a monodone where it signifies the action itself, but a corm; as, John told me to read, and I did so. That is, I did it, did this act.

4. So is not a monodone where it signifies degree, but a clonoclade; as, It is so cold that I must have more fire.

As.

1. The poeclad which is given by as, in a comparison of equality, should be left in the implenary state where the plenary would mar the euphony; as, John writes as well as his brother,

The first as is not a monodone, but a clonoclade, an adverb, belonging to well.

2. The poeclad which is given by as, in a comparison of equality, may be rendered plenary where there is no action; as, John is as tall as James is, Henry is as good as his brother is.

Still, the implenary state is something better; as, Henry is as tall as his brother,

- 3. When as is used in the sense of "because," or "for this reason," the poeclads which it gives, should generally be in the plenary state; as, ("As I could not go) [I sent my brother,"] [I could not aid him] (as I had not the means.)
- 4. The poeclads which as gives in sentences like the following, should be plenary:

"As (with the people) so with the priest."

It should be: [It is] (with the people) (as it is) (with the priest.)

REMARK.

When as introduces a poeclad to render "as long," or any similar phrase, definite, the poeclad should be plenary; as,

["The heir, as long (as he is a child,) differeth] nothing from a servant."

REMARK.

When as means time, it is not a monodone; as,

[As (John returned) he took a seat.]

When, as, while, then, before, after, where, there, here, as long, until, &c., never belong to that mono which acts as a commentary upon them; as,

[When (the clock struck ten,) I went] (to church.)

- "When," in itself, is indefinite. Hence this word cannot tell at what time I went to church. But, as this word, when, is made definite by the mono, "the clock struck ten," it becomes abundantly competent to indicate the exact time of my going to church. The monos that make these words, which in themselves are extremely vague, competent to indicate an exact time, or place, are called the qualifying monos. "The clock struck ten," is the qualifying mono of "when," in the above case.
- 5. As is a corm where it seems to have the sense of according to, and is put for which; as, The men, women, and children were all lost, as appears from the following.
- 6. When as comes before for, where for denotes a purpose, an object, a motive, as gives an implenary poeclad; as, They ran (as , , ,) for their lives. (As they would run.)
- 7. When as has something of the sense of in the same way, or in the same state, the poeclads which it gives, are often implenary; as, "But, (as, , then,) he that was born of the flesh, persecuted him that was born after the spirit, so it is now."
- 8. In some cases where as signifies manner, it may give an implenary poeclad; as, "Are ye come out (as,,,,,) against a thief?"

That is, in the manner in which you would come out against a thief.

- 9. The poeclad which as gives in monos like the following, "As appears, as follows," &c., are rendered plenary by supplying it.
- 10. When as comes before yet, and seems to imply, "up to this time," it gives an implenary poeclad; as, ("As, vet,) she has no name."

That is, ("As the child yet is) [she has no name."]

That is, as the child is up to this time; for it is yet, not as, that means up to this time.

11. When as stands before a sentence, or a word, which is employed for illustrating a principle, a rule, or a definition, it gives an implenary poeclad:

A corm is a foundation word in the frame-work of a mono; (as, , , ,) (, , ,) (, ,

, , ,) [" There was a man."]

(As it is seen) (in man) (in the following mono:) [There was a man.]

The word, it, represents "foundation word."

As it is seen. That is, as foundation word is seen in man.

12. As often gives plenary poeclads, like "it were;" as, "And I saw, (as it were,) a sea of glass. [And I saw a sea] (of glass,) (as it were.)

The poeclad, "as it were" has the import of the nepoeclad, "in appearance." [And I saw a sea] (of glass) (in appearance.)

The natural construction is the following:

[And I saw something] (which appeared as if it was a sea) (of glass.)

In this construction, as is not a monodone, but a clonoclade, adverb, belonging to appeared.

13. When as comes before touching, as-touching is a monodone; as, "And, (as touching the dead,) that they rise, have ye not read," &c. "And said unto them, Ye men of Israel, take heed to yourselves what ye intend to do (as touching these men.")

As touching has the sense of concerning, respecting.

"Have ye not read as touching the dead."

That is, concerning the dead.

REMARKS.

Two words may be taken as one part of speech, where they are used in the exact sense of one other word, provided the substitution of the one word for the two, does not change the frame-work of the sentence. Where the substitution of the one for the two, gives a mono more, or a mono less, or changes a poeclad to a nepoe-clad, or vice versa, the two words cannot be taken as one part of speech. Hence, with accuracy cannot be taken as one part of

speech, although accurately may be substituted for with accuracy, without any change in the sense. For the substitution of accuracy for with accuracy, changes the frame-work of the sentence; as, [John writes his copies] (with accuracy.)

The substitution of accurately would reduce the sentence to one mono; as, [John writes his copies accu-

rately.

"With accuracy," and "accurately" are not synonymous in syntax: hence one cannot be analyzed like the other.

14. When as comes before for, as-for is a monodone; as, ("As-for this fellow,) (he is actually unknown to me.")

That is, [I must say, (as-for this fellow) that] (he is

actually unknown) (to me.)

That is, I must say concerning, or respecting this fellow.

15. When as comes before if, or though, it is not a monodone, but a clonoclade, an adverb, belonging to the gnomaclade, or verb, which comes before it; as, [John appears as] (if he is sick.) [You appear as] (though you are ill.)

REMARKS.

I. As is not a monodone where it is a corm. As may be considered a corm when same, such, much or many, is found in the mono that is superior to the mono to which as belongs; as, [Henry has such fruit] (as I like.)

Still, however, if all ellipses should be filled in this, and similar constructions, as could not be parsed as a corm; as, [John has such fruit] (as that fruit is) (which

I like.)

II. As is a corm where it is improperly used for which; as, [John said nothing] (as (I know) of.)
[John said nothing] (of which) (I know anything.)

16. The negative poeclad given by as, is often plenary; as, ["They are not of the world even] (as I am not) of the world."

Even is a clonoclade, belonging to are. They are not of the world in the same manner in which I am.

16. In general, the ne-poeclads given by as, should be plenary; as, "John came (as a prophet.") "We then (as workers,) together with you, beseech you that ye

receive not the grace of God in vain."

17. When the superior mono is an implenary poe-clad, as may give an implenary ne-poeclad; as, "Wherefore ye had notice beforehand, that the same might be ready (as a matter) of bounty, and not (as , ,) of covetousness."

"As" is not unfrequently found before the demi-mono; as, The heat was so intense as to render travelling almost impossible. This is a very improper application of as: the word which the nature of the proposition requires, is "that." The heat was so intense that travelling was

almost impossible.

"The heat was so intense," expresses the cause, and the effect is that travelling became almost intolerable. But as is never employed to indicate an effect. For instance: "It rained so fast as I could not attend," is not English. And the reason is that, as is never used properly when it is put before that mono, or demi-mono, which expresses a consequence, an effect. Corrected: It rained so fast that I could not attend.

That is, it rained so fast, the consequence was that I

could not attend.

N. B. A mono-clade, (conjunction) never belongs to the demi-mono.

As-well-as.

1. The poeclads which as well as gives, are generally in the implenary state; as, John, (as well as James,

,) went. "Have we not power to lead about a sister (as well as other apostles , , ?") "Paul (as well as Silas , ,) sang praises to God." Paul sang praises to God (as well as Silas , , .)

REMARK.

It is not necessary to supply the no-e-ton, "to God." Those no-e-tons which are superior monos, must be supplied; for they are absolutely necessary to sustain the inferior monos which are expressed. No inferior mono can

be conjected to its superior mono unless its superior is introduced. Hence, when the superior mono is a no-e-ton, it must be supplied. Superior monos are never conjected.

2. When there is but one thing, or but one assemblage of things, the name of the thing, or of the assemblage of things, should be omitted in the poeclad given by as well as; as, John works (as well as, plays.) Henry is good (as well as, rich. These books are mine (as well as, yours.)

REMARKS.

1. "As well as" never gives a nepoeclad; nor does it

ever give a pleocorm.

2. In the first of the following sentences, as well as is a monodone;—in the second, the last as only, is a monodone:

John, as well as his brother, wrote letters.
 John wrote letters as well as his brother.

In the first, and can be substituted for as well as, in the second, it cannot. In the second, as well means so accurately.

As-also.

1. When as also is used as a monodone, the poeclad which it gives, must be implenary; as, John (as also his brother , ,) was there.

REMARK. -- As also should never be used.

LESSON XII.

But.

1. Can but give an implenary pleocorm?

2. In general the pleocorms given by but, should have both what?

3. Can but give a pleocorm which has no word expressed, except but?

4. Can you give an instance in which but is the only

expressed word in the pleocorm?

5. What should be expressed when but gives a poeclad which is not a repetition of the pleocorm, or of a superior poeclad?

6. What should be expressed when the poeclad, given by but, is in the main, a repetition of the pleocorm, or of

a poeclad?

7. What is said of climbeth, and entereth?

8. When is but itself omitted?

- 9. When the *nature* of the case gives the exact event, should the word which would *express* the event, be omitted, or not?
- 10. Have you given close attention to the sixth com-

ment upon but?

11. Does but ever mean except?
12. What does except mean?

13. Does but in the sense of except, ever give a pleocorm?

14. Does but in the sense of "different from," or "opposite to," ever give a nepoeclad?

15. Does but in the sense of except, give poeclads, or

nepoeclads, or both?

16. When must the mono which is superior to the mono given by but in the sense of except, contain a negation?

17. When has the mono which is superior to the mono,

given by but in the sense of except, no negation?

18. What is meant by "when the thing which is excepted," or excluded by but, is not reached by the proposition in the superior mono?

19. When should the poeclad which but gives in the

sense of except, have nothing except but, expressed?

20. How many examples are given in illustration of the ninth comment on but?

21. In what state should the nepoeclads which are given by but, be?

22. When is it sufficient to express the name of the thing excluded by but, in the nepocclad given by but?

23. Have you read with great care, the remarks upon but and only, at the close of this lesson?

24. What does only exclude?

25. What does but exclude?

THE TEXT.

But.

1. Some of the pleocorms which but gives, may be implenary; but in general, they should have both cordictive words expressed; as, ["But the scripture hath concluded all ,] (under sin,) [But before (faith came) we were kept] (under the law,) [But after (that) (faith is come) we are no longer] (under a schoolmaster."

REMARK.

In some instances in the pleocorm which but gives, nothing, except but, is expressed; as,

Henry is good. [But, , ,] (for what?)

2. When the poeclad, given by but, is not a repetition of the pleocorm, or of a superior poeclad, both cordictive words, if not the entire mono, should be expressed; as,

["I have many things to say] (unto you;) (but ye cannot bear them now.") ("If I go not away,) [the Comforter will not come] (unto you;) (but (if I depart,) I will send him.")

3. When the poeclad, given by but, is in the main, a mere repetition of the pleocorm, or of a poeclad, nothing should be expressed, but the words which are not found in the pleocorm, or in the poeclad; as, [John is the brother] (of James;) (but , , not , ,) (of Stephen,) ["Man shall not live (upon bread) alone;] (but , , ,) (upon every word) (which proceedeth out) (of the mouth)

(of God,") [He (that entereth (into the sheep-fold,) not) (by the door;) (but , climbeth up) (some other way,) is a thief.]

REMARKS.

"Climbeth" is expressed in the poeclad given by but, because "climbeth" is not a mere repetition of "entereth,"

found in the poeclad, of which, "but climbeth up," is a partial imitation. "Entereth" is the genus, and "climbeth," the species. Did not the writer wish to point out a more special way of entering into the sheep-fold, in the second poeclad, than he has in the first, the second would read as follows: "He (that entereth (into the sheep-fold) not) (by the door,) (but , ,) (by some other way,) is a thief.

That is, (but that entereth) by, &c. "Up," however, is not found in the poeclad after which ("but climbeth up") is modelled. And, as "up" would not coalesce with entereth in sense, climbeth is substituted for entereth, or the species for the genus, the particular for the general.

4. When the poeclad given by but, breaks its (poeclad's) superior mono, but itself should be omitted; as, "God, (, not man, , ,) is the ruler of this universe."

[God is the ruler] (of this universe;) (but man is not the ruler.)

5. In some instances where the nature of the case gives the exact event, the word which would express the event, should be omitted; as, "It is impossible but that offences will come; (but wo , ,) (unto him through whom they come.")

That is, wo shall come, or wo shall be, or wo is unto him.

6. When the pleocorm given by but, is broken by a poeclad, the antithetical poeclad, given by but, should also be broken by a repetition of the same poeclad which breaks the pleocorm; as, ["But he (who was) (of the bond-woman,) was born] (after the flesh;) (but he (who was) (of the free-woman,) was) (by promise.")

In the translation, the poeclad, "who was," which here breaks the poeclad, given by but, is omitted: ("but he (of the free-woman) was) by promise.")

REMARKS.

1. But, in the sense of except, never gives a pleocorm.

2. But, in the sense of "different from," or "opposite to," never gives nepoeclads.

3. But, in the sense of except, generally gives nepoe-

clads.

7. Where the thing which is excepted, excluded, by but, is the only one which the proposition in the superior mono, reaches, the superior mono must contain a negation expressed, or implied; as,

[" John eat nothing] (but an apple.")

Here, the apple, the very thing which is excluded, is the only thing which John eat.

S. When the thing, excepted, excluded, by but, is not reached by the proposition in the superior mono, the superior mono has no negation; as,

[John eat everything] (but an apple.)

Here the very thing which is excepted, excluded by but, is the only thing which John did not eat!

9. Where but means except, the poeclad which it gives, should have nothing expressed except but; as,

"He hath not grieved me (but , , ,) in part."

That is, he hath not grieved me at all, (except he hath grieved me) in part.

That is, if the fact that he hath grieved me in part, is taken away, removed, rejected, then he hath not grieved me at all. (See page 101.)

"Man (but , ,) for this, were active to no end."

That is, man were active to no end, (except it were) for this.

"Where can the sinner go, (but, , , ,) to Christ?"

That is, if you except, reject, remove, that the sinner can go to Christ, he can go to no one, to no place, for salvation.

"In what does true piety consist, (but, ,) in a hearty resignation to the will of God, in all things?"

That is, in what does true piety consist, (except it consists) in a hearty resignation to the will of God, in all things. In other words, True piety consists in nothing at all, if you except, reject, throw out, that it consists in a hearty resignation to the will of God, in all things. (See p. 101.)

["No man cometh to the Father,] (but , ,) (by me.")

That is, but, or except he cometh by me.

- 10. In some cases the paraclade, to, should not be expressed in the demi-mono which follows the implenary poeclad given by but in the sense of except; as,
- "Jones has done nothing this week (but , ,) , play."

[Jones has done nothing] (during this week) (except it is to play.)

11. The nepoeclads which are given by but, should be plenary, or nearly so; as,

All the boys went (but James,) "All eyes were dry (but mine, ") "It is impossible, (but that) offences will come." (p. 101.)

- "That," here is a corm, representing the mono which follows it, "offences will come."
- 12. When the thing excluded by but, is reached by the superior mono, and belongs to the same class with the second thing in the superior mono, it is sufficient to express the name of the second, in the nepocclad given by but; as, [John has , ,] (but one son.)

Here, the son that is excluded by but, is reached by the superior mono, and belongs to the same class with the second thing in the superior mono, namely, son, understood.

Hence it is not necessary to express the word, son, in both monos; as, [John has no son] (but one son.)

[John has purchased , ,] (but one book.)

Now, book in the nepoeclad, indicates what words should be supplied in the pleocorm.

REMARKS.

But, and only.

These words, but, and only, often produce the same effect; hence the old school grammarians consider them the same part of speech. These words, however, differ in their frame-work connection with other words; and, consequently, in the objects on which they exert an influence in producing the common result, viz., exclusion. Therefore they cannot belong to the same syntax class of words. That but, and only are much the same in many instances in ep-e-dei-col-o-gy, is obvious. Both words convey the general idea of exclusion, exception, subtraction.

- 1. "John has only one son."
- 2. "John has but one son."
- 3. "John has only three sons."
- 4. "John has but three sons."

Only excludes those things which are not mentioned in the sentence; whereas, but excludes those which are mentioned in the sentence.

The son, mentioned in the first sentence, is not excluded by only: it is the province of only to exclude all sons from John, except this one son who is mentioned in this sentence. It is the province of but, not to exclude those sons who are not mentioned in the second sentence, but to exclude the very son who is mentioned in this sentence:

["John has no son] (but one son.")

Here the son mentioned in the nepocclad, is excepted, excluded, to place him beyond the negative proposition in the pleocorm. So in the following, but introduces an exception, an exclusion, to prevent the proposition in the pleocorm, from including him who is mentioned in the nepocclad:

["All the boys went] (but James.")

Here, James is excluded, taken out of the reach of the

pleocorm, by the exception made by but. And, in the same way in which James is here excluded, taken out of the reach of the pleocorm, "All the boys went," the son, mentioned in the nepocclad of the following sentence, is excluded, placed by but, out of the reach of the negative pleocorm:

[John has no son] (but one.)

John has no son. "But," however, puts in the exception, "but one son." And, as this exception saves one son from the reach of the negative proposition in the pleocorm, it follows that John has one son in despite of this negative proposition.

To see that *only* and *but* differ very considerably one from the other, it may be well to examine them in the fol-

lowing sentences:

"John has only one son."
 "John has but one son."

1. John has no son only one.

2. John has no son but one.

Again.

1. "John has an only son."

2. "John has a son."

3. "Only John has a son."

4. "John, only has a son."

5. John has sons only.

In each of these instances, only excludes—but only does not exclude anything which is mentioned in the sentence in which only stands. "But," however, excludes the very thing that is mentioned in the mono which it gives:

1. "All went but John:"

2. "James has taken everything but the book."

3. "Henry has no son but this boy."

4. Jones has done nothing to-day but play.

1. "John has an only son."

Only is a metaclade, belonging to son. Yet, only does not exclude this son—though it excludes all other sons.

2. "John has a son."

True: and he may have ten sons: this sentence does not exclude the idea that he has not more sons than one.

3. " Only John has a son."

Only, here, is a metaclade, and excludes all persons but John, from the possession of sons.

4. "John, only has a son."

Only is here a clonoclade, belonging to has; and excludes all acts, all deeds, but that denoted by has, from John, in relation to his son. John, only has his son: that is, John does nothing in relation to his son, but possess him. John does not clothe his son; he does not educate him: John, only has him.

5. "John has sons only."

Only, here, is a metaclade, an adjective, belonging to sons. It is the province of only, in this instance, to exclude all daughters from the possession of John.

Observe.—The following sentences are not English:

1. "All the boys went only James."

2. "I called all the girls only Laurein."

3. "All the girls have come only Laurinda."

4. "The girls have all read only Me-ril-la."

But should be substituted for only. (See PART II.)

Observe.—The words which are understood in the pleocorm, or poeclad, when but is employed, are not understood when only is used; as,

1. [John has , ,] (but one son.)

2. John has only one son.

Indeed, when only is used, the superior mono, whether pleocorm or poeclad, should have no negative; as, He hath not grieved me but in part."

3. He hath grieved me only in part.

1. There is but one mono in the following:
["Henry has only one book."]

2. There are two monos in the following:

["Henry has , ,] (but one book.")

LESSON XIII.

Except, Than.

1. When is except a monodone?

2. Have you examined the instances which illustrate except, and excepting, as monodones?

3. Have you paid close attention to what is said of the

state of the monos, given by than?

4. What is said of "than whom?"

5. For what should whom be exchanged?

THE TEXT.

- 1. Except, and excepting are monodes where but can be substituted for them; as, Take all the books except, or excepting that. But that.
- 2. Except, and excepting may give poeclads and nepoeclads; but not pleocorms.
- 3. When a mere thing, or a mere individual, is excluded, except, and excepting give nepoeclads; as, I have no book except the Bible. Henry has no daughter excepting Jane. James makes no charge against Stephen (except that) he is idle. I have no excuse to offer (except that), of necessity.
- 4. When except, and excepting exclude certain things from an expressed, or from an implied negation, as the condition on which something can be accomplished, these words give poeclads; as, "Now, how is any man to learn the will of his Maker (except , , ,) from the Bible?" ("Except ye repent,) ye shall all likewise perish."

Than.

- 1. Than never gives any mono, excepting poeclads.
- 2. In general, the poeclads given by than, should be left in the implenary state; as, "Joseph was older (than John, ")
- 3. When the poeclad, given by than, falls before the demi-mono, nothing but than should be expressed; as, "John knew better (than , , ,) to do it."

That is, John knew better than it was good for him to do it.

"This apple is better than that apple."

Than that apple is what? Than that apple is good.

Good, however, need not be considered a no-e-ton, for it is not necessary to enable the pupil to analyze the other words in the mono.

- 1. It is better for him to return (than , ,) (, ,) to remain here.
 - 2. "It is more congenial to health, to exercise, (than,,,) (,,,,) to study."
 - 3. "It is better to suffer wrong (than , ,) to do wrong."

That is, [it is better] (for a person to suffer wrong) (than it is) (for a person to do wrong.)

- 4. When the corm can be inferred from the superior mono, it should be omitted in the poeclad given by than; as, "John would sooner go (than, not.")
- 5. When the omission of the cordictive words would produce ambiguity in the poeclad given by than, they should be expressed; as, James loves John better (than Stephen.)

This may mean that, James loves John better than he loves Stephen; and it may mean that, James loves John better than Stephen loves him. To render the exact sense obvious, the poeclad, given by than, must not be so implenary; as, James loves John better (than Stephen does.

If the sense is that James loves one more than the other, James should be repeated through the proxycorm, he; as, James loves John better (than he does Stephen.)

REMARKS.

Whom, after than, should be rejected as grossly bad English: "I saw Johnson daily, than whom, no man entertained me better."

"I saw Johnson daily; and no man entertained me better than he."

He, or who should be put for whom; if who, the mono given by than, should not close the sentence; as, I saw

that gentleman often, than who, no man ever treated me better.

But he is the better substitute for who.

- 6. When no obscurity is produced by the omission of the nepoeclad which contains the subject of the gnomaclade, or verb, in the demi-mono, this clad should be omitted; as,
- 1. [It is better] (, , , to suffer wrong than , , to do wrong.
 - 2. [It is easier] (, , to walk.)

[It is better] (for a person to suffer wrong) (than,) (for him to do wrong.")

What are the true noetons of the following:

(In order) (, , , to be a grammarian,) [he must think.]

LESSON XIV.

Seeing, If, For, "To be sure," No, Even.

1. Seeing never gives a pleocorm, nor a nepoeclad.

2. The poeclad, given by seeing, must be plenary, or nearly so; as, "Now, I am sure the Lord will do me good, (seeing I have a Levite) for my priest."

If.

1. If, rarely, if ever, gives a pleocorm; it never gives

a nepoeclad.

- 2. The poeclad, given by if, may be more or less plenary, according to circumstances. In some instances, it is not necessary to express either of the cordictive words:
 - 1. "I shall return if I can , .")

2. It is said that he is a good man; (if

so,) his deeds will show it.

3. "Johnson will return, (if he gets my letter) in season."

For.

For may give a pleocorm, a poeclad, and a nepoeclad.

1. When for is the first word in a full, a complete, period, it gives the pleocorm; as, ["For all the law is fulfilled] in one word, even in this, Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself."

2. Generally, the poeclads which are given by for,

should be plenary, or nearly so; as,

1. "From henceforth, let no man trouble me; (for I bear the marks) of the Lord in my body."

2. "Be not deceived; (for whatsoever,) a man

soweth) that shall he reap.

- 3. He shall glorify me; (for he shall receive,) of mine.
- 4. "I pray for them; I pray not for the world; but for them which thou hast given me; (for they are thine.")
- 3. The nepoeclads given by for expressed, should be plenary, or nearly so; as, "I pray for them; I pray not (for the world;) but, (for those,) which thou hast given me; for they are thine.

4. When the nepoeclad, given by for, is founded on the receiver, and breaks the superior mono, for itself is omit-

ted; as,

1. [Get (, me) some paper,] Jane.

2. [Father has purchased (, John) a knife.]

3. "For he loveth our nation; and he hath built (us) a synagogue."

REMARK.

When the superior mono is *not* broken, *for* should be expressed; as, He hath built a synagogue (*for* us.)

- 5. Generally, when the nepoeclad, given by for, is founded upon time, number of times, or space, for itself should be omitted; as,
- "Henry had been walking (, an hour,") "Me-ril-la has been reading (, a long time,") "Go, and wash (, seven times.")

(", Nine times) the space that measures day, and night To mortal men, he, with his horrid crew, Lay vanquished, rolling in the fiery gulf."

He certainly rolled (, a long time,) and (, a long distance.)

6. When the demi-mono expresses a purpose, a motive, an object, for itself, the well-known harbinger of a purpose, an object, an incentive, should be omitted; as,

"What went ye out (, to see?")

REMARKS.

The demimono so generally expresses that act, or deed, which produces the purpose, object, or incentive, that

the omission of for, produces no ambiguity.

- "To see," is a demi-mono; but "for to see," is a whole mono—"for to see," is a nepoeclad. "To see," is the demi-mono cormified by the introduction of for—hence "to see," is a corm—and for is a steroclade, a preposition, belonging to the cormified demi-mono, "to see."
 - 1. "I told him (, to go.")
 - 2. "He asked me (, to read the letter.")
- 1. Did I command him without a purpose for doing it? No. "To go," expresses the act which I wished him to do; and for, understood, indicates that this very act is the object for which I commanded him: I told him for—but for what did I tell him? for to go.
 - 2. He asked me (, to read the letter.")

He asked me—but for what purpose did he ask me? for to read the letter.

" To be sure."

The demimono, to be sure, is very common to be sure; and it is as improper to be sure, as it is common!

- 1. "Has the clock been repaired?" "To be sure!"
- 2. "Has Charles come with the paper?" "To be sure he has."

This demimono is not confined to the common people.

Is it not something singular that "to be sure," should be substituted for surely: the erroneous prolix for the proper laconic? That we should fall into error from an overanxiety to be brief, is nothing singular; but to reject the right for the wrong, at the sacrifice of despatch, is eccentric indeed.

No.

1. No is a monodone where it is used much in the sense of nay, where nay means, "not only so, but more;" as,

"No man could bind him—(no, , not, even) with chains."

That is, no man could bind him—(no, or nay, he could not bind him even) with chains.

The second no is not a negative, but an affirmative.

REMARKS.

When no is the only expressed word in an answer to a question, it is not a monodone, but a clonoclade; as,

"Did you go to the city last week?" [" , , no."]

In this relation the t is omitted; not becomes no. When the mono is rendered plenary, no itself should be rendered plenary; as,

"Did you go to the city last week?" ["I did not."]

Even.

Even is rarely, if ever a monodone. It is often the first word in a mono; as, "Lo, I am with you always; (,, even) unto the end of the world."

That is, I am even, I continue even up to the end with you. Even is a clonoclade, belonging to am.

LESSON XV.

1. Have you examined this lesson with care?

2. When is that a corm?

3. When is for understood before that? When is of?

- 4 When is "the consequence is, or was, or has been," understood before that?
 - 5. When is "which is" understood before that?

THE TEXT.

- 1. That is never a monodone.
- 2. That is a corm where it is used as the representative of one, or more, monos which follow it; as, "That man is mortal, has never been denied," "I have heard that the Greeks defeated the Turks."
- 1. What has never been denied? That has never been denied. What is it which infuses a distinct meaning into that? "Man is mortal."
- 2. I have heard what? that. What does that represent? "the Greeks defeated the Turks."

That, in all similar instances, is called a conjunction by the old school grammarians. Hence that in the following, is a conjunction:

"And it came to pass that Jesus himself drew near."

The word, it, is called a pronoun, representing the monos, "Jesus himself drew near."

And, as that represents the same monos, why is not that a pronoun? It came to pass. What came to pass? why, that came to pass.

3. That is a corm where it is used in the relation of who, and which; as, This is the lad that wishes to learn English syntax, This is the book that he needs—who wishes—which he needs.

REMARK.

That is always a corm where its frame-work rank will not allow of the substitution of the; as, "Now, I know that the Lord will do me good, seeing I have a Levite for my priest." The, here, cannot be substituted for that.

REMARK.

Of, for, "which is," "the consequence is," save, in, it, on, "it happens," may have something to do with that when

that is a corm where the old school grammarians call it a conjunction.

- 4. When that comes before monos which denote a purpose, some object in view, or some inducement for a certain measure, for is understood before it; as,
- 1. "Then were brought unto him little children (that) he should put his hands on them, and pray."

For what were the little children brought? That he might put his hands on them and pray. Ah! were they brought for that? Yes, they were brought for that.

- 2. "For a good work, we stone thee not, but for blasphemy, and, (because, that) thou makest thyself God."
- 5. When that, as the proxy of a mono, follows glad, confident, persuaded, assure, certain, &c., of is the true noeton; as, "Paul was glad (, that) Titus had come."
- 6. When that, as the proxy of a mono, follows determined, resolved, &c., on is the true noeton; as, "They resolved (, that) he should pay the demand."
- 7. Where that comes before monos which express a result, an effect, a consequence, "the consequence was," is understood; as, "He was so ill (,,, that) he could not return," "Nature has so exquisitely modelled the human features (,,, that) they are capable of the expression of the most secret emotions of the soul."
- 8. When that is used much in the sense of viz., and is not synonymous with "it," "which is," is the noeton; as,
 - "And he spake a parable unto them to this end, (, that) men ought always to pray, and not faint.

REMARKS.

There is some advantage, and much beauty, in the use of that in those constructions in which the old school grammarians call it a conjunction, but in which the new, denominate it a proxy corm. In all these cases, that is a precursor—it informs the mind in advance, that something is soon to follow of some moment; as, "Now, we know that, at this moment, the Savior of the world was born."

The use of that is not the only instance in which our

language sends out *harbingers* to herald in, and fix the mind upon, the important parts of the proposition. *Here*, there, and various other words, hold this prophetic rank.

"There is, then, no condemnation." But, where, says the mind, is there no condemnation? There is no con-

demnation to them-who are in Christ Jesus.

In the same beautiful way do many of the monodones herald in causes, consequences, conclusions, &c.

1. " For to be carnally minded, is death; because the

carnal mind is enmity against God."

2. "For he, that in these things, serveth Christ, is acceptable to God, and approved of men. "Therefore, let us follow after the things which make for peace."

REMARKS.

Where that falls after "in order," for is understood before that; as, I jumped out in order (,, that) I

might aid my son.

This is not good: the mono, "in order," or the mono, for that," should be omitted; as, I jumped out in order to aid my son. Or, I jumped out that I might aid my son. The omission of either mono, rids the sentence of the pleonasm which now mars it.

Supply the noetons in the following:

"It was nearly at the moment 5 5 that Augustus Cæsar had, for a third time, 7 since the foundation of the city, -10 10 11 11 the temple of Janus, in token of the prevalence of 1 13 13 14 14 14 universal peace, that the Savior of the world, was born." you, therefore, brethren, by the "I beseech 6 1 mercies of God, that ye present your bodies \mathbf{a} living sacrifice, holy, acceptable, unto God, which is your reasonable service."

LESSON XVI.

After, Before, Notwithstanding.

1. When is after a monodone?

2. When is before a monodone?

3. When are the monos to which after, and before, belong, nepoeclads?

4. What is said of notwithstanding?

THE TEXT.

After is a monodone where it does not mean time. After gives nepoeclads only, which should be plenary, or nearly so; as,

1. "He was called after his uncle."

2. "He made this machine after that model."

3. "Have you come after your book?"
4. "Ye shall not go after other Gods."

5. "They judge after the sight."
6. "Can you drink (after me?")

That is, can you drink from the same glass from which

I have drunk, without first cleansing it?

If after, in the sixth instance, signified time, it would not be a monodone, but a clonoclade. Nor would the mono, "after me," be correct English: it would then be, ("after I, , , , .")

after I , , .")
["Can you drink after] I shall have drunk?"

When after signifies time, it is not a steroclade, not a preposition, but a clonoclade, an adverb, belonging to the gnomaclade, or verb, in the superior mono; as,

[After (these things were ended,) Paul purposed (in the spirit,) to go] to Jerusalem, saying, after I have been there, I must also see Rome.

1. Paul purposed after to go.

2. (I must also see Rome after.) (See page 133.)

Before.

When before does not mean time, it is a monodone, and gives nothing but nepoeclads; as,

1. "He stood before his desk."

2. "He was not behind, but before me."

3. "Wherewithal shall I come before the Lord?"

4. "The world was all before them."

5. "And he set Ephraim before Manasseh."

6. "He esteemed virtue before gold."

(Part III, page 20.)

REMARKS.

After, and before, are often improperly used, even by good writers:

"He that cometh (after me,) is preferred before me;

for he was (before me.")

The syntax of this verse is not correct. The word, after, denotes time, and is a clonoclade, not a steroclade, not a preposition. In the second instance, the word, before, means time, and is a clonoclade, not a steroclade. The proxy corm, me, then, should give place to I:

[He (that cometh after) (I come,) is preferred] (before

me;) (for he was before) (I was.)

When before means place, preference, or superiority, it is a steroclade; in other instances it is a clonoclade.

When after, and before, signify time, the poeclads which follow them, may be left in the implenary state; as,

- 1. [" Now, after (two days , , ,) he departed thence,] (and , went) (into Galilee.")
- 2. ["After (these things , ,) Jesus went] over the sea of Galilee, which is the sea of Tiberias."
- 3. ["After (these things , , ,) Jesus walked] in Galilee."
- 4. [" Then Jesus (six days) before (the passover, ,) came] to Bethany."

In all instances like these, the old school grammarians parse after, and before, as prepositions, steroclades. Yet, in every instance where the poeclad is plenary, they parse after, and before, as adverbs, clonoclades:

1. [" After (these things were ended) Paul purposed] in the spirit, &c."

But, although they call after, in this case, by the proper name, they uniformly conject it to the wrong gnoma-

clade, or verb: they say that after is an adverb, belonging to were ended! Hence this clonoclade is said to qualify the very words which actually qualify it! "Were ended" renders after definite, that after may point out the time of Paul's purposing. (See page 133.)

Observe.—"He began after he," is English. But, "he commenced before him," "I began after her," is not

English, but custom.

The pupil should be permitted, however, to follow custom in speaking, and writing. But, that he may know what the syntax genius of the language is, which, in many cases, is totally disregarded by custom, he should carefully correct the numerous errors which were originally committed through ignorance, and afterwards confirmed by habit.

LESSON XVII.

Provided, Lest, Notwithstanding, and Save.

1. Is provided always a monodone?

2. Does provided ever give a pleocorm?

3. Does provided ever give a poeclad?

4. Does provided ever give any mono but a poeclad?

5. Does that ever follow provided by an ellipsis?

6. What is the legitimate noeton of the ellipsis which comes after provided, when that follows provided?

7. What is said of lest?

8. Does that ever follow lest?

9. Is the mono which lest gives, when that follows it, plenary, or implenary?

10. Does lest ever give pleocorms?11. Does lest ever give nepoeclads?

12. What is said of notwithstanding?

13. Does notwithstanding ever give pleocorms?
14. Does notwithstanding ever give nepoeclads?

15. Are the poeclads, given by notwithstanding, plenary, or implenary?

16. Is notwithstanding always a monodone? (Yes, and of the first class.)

17. What is said of save?

THE TEXT.

Provided, Lest, Notwithstanding, Save.

1. Provided is a monodone where it introduces a poeclad as a condition, a provision; as, "I shall go

(provided you do not return) next spring."

- 2. When that does not follow provided, the poeclad, given by provided, must be plenary, or nearly so; as, I shall purchase the house (provided I like it.) I shall purchase the house (provided you do not , , .")
- 3. When that follows provided, the poeclad which provided gives, is always implenary: even both cordictive words are noetons; as, "I shall go (provided, that) you do not return in the spring."

That is, (provided it happens that.)

Lest.

1. Lest gives nothing but poeclads, which, with one exception, should always be plenary, or nearly so; as, "I will repeat my illustrations of these principles, (lest the audience should not understand them.") ("Lest the audience should not understand", ") I will repeat my illustrations."

EXCEPTION.

2. When lest is followed by that, the poeclad which it gives, is always implenary; even both cordictive words are omitted; as, "I do not wish to promise (lest, that) I could not fulfil my engagement."

That is, (lest it should happen that) I could not fulfil, &c.

Notwithstanding.

1. Notwithstanding is always a monodone, and gives nothing but poeclads in which there must be one of the two cordictive words, expressed; as, I shall return, (notwithstanding the bad roads,) (,, ")

That is, I shall return (notwithstanding the bad roads

are) against me.)

2. Sometimes the poeclad, given by notwithstanding, is so constructed, that both cordictive words are expressed; as, I shall return (notwithstanding the roads are bad.)

REMARKS.

It is of some importance that the true *syntax* relation of "notwithstanding," should be much better understood. The following is the first sentence in the *Preface* of Greenleaf's *Grammar*:

"Notwithstanding the numerous publications upon English grammar, and the ability with which many of them are written, it is a fact, which I believe few will deny, that this science has never been so simplified, as to render the study of it at once concise, easy and inviting."

"Notwithstanding the numerous publications upon English grammar," &c.

In this instance, both cordictive words should be ex-

pressed.

Notwithstanding the *publications* on English grammar, are numerous.

As the sentence stands, it is impossible to supply the noeton, are; hence publications cannot be parsed.

The word, ability, is also deprived of its case:

"Notwithstanding the numerous publications on English grammar, and the ability with which many of them are written."

Notwithstanding the publications are numerous,

(and the ability (with which many of them are written,

highly respectable,) it is a fact, &c.

In a work, entitled "Johnson's English Dictionary, as improved by Todd," &c., I have found the following ac-

count of "notwithstanding:"

"Notwithstanding, not-with-standing, conj. [This word is properly a participial adjective, as it is compounded of not and withstanding, and answers exactly to the Latin non obstante,] without hindrance or obstruction from."

The reason which is here offered for calling "notwith-standing" a participial adjective, is not sound; and the position with respect to the meaning of "notwithstanding," is without the least plausibility. Indeed, the signification of this word is the very reverse of that which is presented in the above quotation: for, instead of denoting that there is no obstruction, it always indicates that there is an obstruction, and implies that it may be overcome or removed; as, He will return notwithstanding your commands, He will pay his debts notwithstanding his poverty, I shall go notwithstanding I am sick.

That is, although your commands may obstruct, yet I shall return; although his poverty produces a great ob struction to the paying of his debts, yet he will pay them; although my illness is an obstacle to my being there, yet

I shall go.

Save.

1. Save, generally, if not always, gives nepoeclads which should be plenary, or nearly so; as,

"And now, behold, I go bound in the spirit unto Jerusalem, not knowing the things that shall befall me there, (save that) the Holy Ghost witnesseth in every city, saying that bonds, and afflictions abide me."

"They all went (save John.")

That is, save, except, or but, John from the others! Yes, but him—for but is happily illustrated in this grossly improper application of it: this use of but is not a syllepsis.

LESSON XVIII.

REMARKS.

ALL who have written English Grammars have found words, in accurately formed sentences, which they have not been able to parse according to any principles laid down in their books. They have denominated these words ano-

malies, and idioms. Whether these words are thus degraded to shield the Grammars, or to teach the syntax philosophy of the words themselves, is quite unimportant But, as an anomaly is an irregularity, or a deviation from fixed principles, it may turn out that the Grammars themselves are anomalies! That they are deviations from the fixed principles of the English language, is a truth which no one who examines the subject, can doubt for a moment. These Grammars, however, are not idioms; for an idiom is something peculiar to a language; but these works are not peculiar to any language, nor common to all: they are inconsistent with the constructive genius of language. Mr. Kirkham remarks, in his Pittsburg edition, in relation to these words, as follows:-" Thus I have taken a slight glance at the different views of grammarians, in relation to these words and phrases—and, since I am not disposed to agree with any of them, perhaps it may be demanded in what manner I would parse these examples myself. An answer is at hand. I would not parse them at all!"

Now, this is a very candid confession of an inability to parse them. Thus they parse the language by passing it

by as idioms, eccentricities, and anomalies!

FROM HUBBARD'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. "What have I to do with thee?"

2. "What have you to say?"
3. "I have a book to read."

" It is sometimes difficult," says the author, " to tell what the object of the verb is, or whether it has any object at all!"

"Should the ingenious student ask for the objects of to do, to say, to read, &c., we reply that they have no objects!!"

In this, however, Mr. Hubbard is as far from the truth as is the learned Mr. Kirkham, who defines rain to be a

state of things!!

Every verb which is transitive in its nature, must be transitive in its construction in relation to other words. To say, to do, and to read, are transitive verbs wherever they are used in the active voice. To do is to do something—to say is to say something, and to read is to read something—for no one can do, say, or read, without doing, saying, or reading something. And this something, be it what it may, is the object of the verb.

1. "I have a book to read." That is, I have a book which to read. Or, I have a book to read it. "I have a

book"-for what? Why, to read it!

2. "What have I to do with thee?" That is, Have I any thing or act, now in view, which I am about to do with thee? Which, understood, then, is the object of do.

3. "What have you to say?" That is, what have you,

which you desire to say.

STATED THUS:

1. ["What, have I, to do] (with thee?"]

2. ["What, have you, to say?"]

3. ["I have a book , to read."]

FILLED UP THUS:

1. ["What thing have I (which to do)] (with thee?")

2. [" What thing have you (which to say?")]

3. ["I have a book (which to read.")]

But I may be told that the insertion of these words, is prejudicial to the music of the language. This I grant, of course! And I add that there is no word that is understood, which, when expressed, does not injure the euphony of the sentence.

To, For, In, With, Of, Concerning, About, During, and Through.

These monodones are not unfrequently noetons in the very nepoeclads which they themselves give:

To.

- 1. When the name of the receiver breaks the superior mono, to itself should not be expressed in the nepoeclad which it gives; as,
 - "James gave (, Charles) a book."
- 2. When the name of the receiver, does not break the superior mono, to should be expressed; as,

"James gave a book (to Charles.")

REMARK.

To, when a paraclade, should not be expressed in the demi-mono, when the mono to which the demi-mono stands conjected, has bid, dare, make, see, help, hear, feel, let, need, or have; as,

"I will let John , write the copies."

That is, to write the copies. (See p. 53.)

In speaking of the use of to as the first word in the demi-mono, I have said that it is employed to prevent a command, and a petition. In a few instances, however, the use of to, is prejudicial to the euphony, the music, of the language. These instances have been ascertained by the ear; and men have agreed to withhold to from them. They occur where bid, dare, feel, have, help, need, hear, let, make, or see is found in that part of the mono to which the demi-mono belongs; as,

[I saw him , write this letter.]

That is, to write, &c.

Hence, if the mono to which the demi-mono belongs, has bid, dare, feel, have, help, hear, let, make, or see, to is not expressed, but understood, in the demi-mono; as,

I saw him, in 1836, in the city of Boston, embark

for England.

What prevents the giving of a command in the word, embark? It is to. For, without to, the pleocorm would have two cordictions—

[I saw him, embark thou.]

To prevent this double cordiction in the same mono, men have agreed to carry to in the mind only. And they have agreed to carry it in the mind, and not in the demimono, because the putting of it into the demi-mono offends the ear.

For.

(See page 153.)

In. With.

In is omitted where taught is used instead of instructed;

- as, he was taught, grammar. That is, he was instructed in grammar.
- 1. With is omitted where handed is used instead of served: as, he was handed , a drink. That is, he was served with a drink.
- 2. With is omitted where willed is used, instead of presented; as, he was willed a house and lot. That is, he was presented with a house, and lot.
- 3. With is omitted where give is used in the sense of presented, favored, or rewarded; as, "he was given

a hundred pounds for his land"—" he was given

an apple"—

That is, "He was presented with a hundred pounds for his land." "He was presented with an apple."

- 4. When the name of the act is denoted in a corm form, with is understood in the nepoeclad which is founded on this corm; as,
 - 1. "Let me die (, the death) of the righteous."
 2. "They dream (, strange dreams.")

3. "They ran (, a race.")

4. "Men should live (pious lives.")

REMARKS.

The nepoeclads which are presented here, have given teachers and grammar-makers, as much trouble as have those in the preceding instances, in which into is the noeton. That a mere glance will enable any one to see that with is the legitimate noeton in the above cases, admits of little doubt. The subject must be examined with care.

Does anything accompany him who dies? Yes. What is it? Death. Can any creature die without a death? No. Death, then, must accompany every creature that dies. What word in our language is distinguished for its use before appendages, concomitants, &c.? With. Why, then, is not with the legitimate noeton in the above cases?

1. Let me go with my bundle.

2. Let me go out of this world with the death of the righteous.

That is, with, join, add, bind, append, the death to me,

which accompanies the righteous man when he leaves this world.

3. "They dream strange dreams."

That is, they dream with, add, append, bind, strange dreams to these dreamers. A man may dream without a strange dream; and he may dream with a strange dream. That is, a strange dream may not be the appendage, accompaniment, of the dreaming process: and again, a strange dream may be the appendage, the accompaniment, of this process.

Said one who could never recollect his dreams, "I

dream without dreams."

4. "They ran a race."

They ran. Now says the writer to the reader, with a race to them, as a natural appendage of this process.

5. [" Men should live] (with pious lives.")

The nepoeclad contains the things to be appended, and the sign which indicates that this appendage is to be withed, bound, to something in the pleocorm. (See PART III., page 33.)

Round, and About.

In general, when *round* and *about* come together, the nepoeclads which they give, are quite implenary, and are sustained by poeclads understood; as,

- 1. ["They went] (round, , ,) (, , ,) (about the camp.")
- 2. ["And there went out a fame] (of him) (through all the region) (, ,) (round , ,) (about , .")

(All the region) (which lay) (round the country) (that was) (about him.)

REMARK.

When about is conjected to the demimono, the demimono, and about together, constitute a nepoeclad; as, "Paul was (about to-open-his-mouth.") (See pp. 181, 187.)

REMARK.

When two monodones of the second class come together, the nepoeclad which is given by the first, has nothing

expressed, but the monodone itself; as, "Call the dog (from , ,) (, ,) (under the table.")

(From the place) (which is) (under the table.)

Of.

- 1. When worth is used in the sense of value, both nepoeclads should be written without of; as,
- 1. ["The hat is] (, worth) (, six dollars.")
 - 2. [" The book is] (, worth) (thirty cents.")

REMARK.

- "He is not worth my notice," is not English. In all similar constructions in which moral worth is the leading idea, worthy should be used.
- 2. When value is used, of should be expressed in both nepoeclads; as, ["The hat is] (of the value) (of six dollars.")
 - 1. [" James was told] (, the truth.")
 - 2. ["Samuel was asked] (, a question.")

In deciding upon the *true* noeton of an ellipsis, the *exact* sense is the standard by which to judge:

"John was asked (, a question.")

From a partial examination, one would be inclined to the opinion that "to answer," is the legitimate noeton of this ellipsis. But, from a full examination, he would, in all probability, select with. John was not asked to answer a question. But he was presented with a question. A question was put to him—presented to him; hence he was furnished with it.

That the expression of with mars the euphony of the sentence, is readily admitted. So, also, does the expression of every noeton, mar the euphony of the language:

- 1. He got (, me) a book.
- 2. He got (for me) a book.
- 1. John got what ,] (, ,) (he wanted.)
 - 2. [John got what thing] (it was) (which he wanted.)
- 1. [Let , him , go.]
 - 2. Let thou him to go.

"James was told (, the truth.")

It may be said, particularly by those who pretend that "the house is building," is bad English, because the house is not active, that "James was told the truth," is marked with gross impropriety. They may say that, James was not told—the truth was told to him. But, what does told, as used in this sentence, mean? Told is used in the sense of "informed." The problem, then, for the grammarian's solution, is, whether James was informed, or whether the truth was informed! James was told of the truth.

LESSON XIX.

1. Are the monos which contain imperative, and petitionative cordictions, plenary, or implenary?

2. Must they always have one of the two cordictive

words, expressed?

3. May both cordictive words be expressed in any case?

THE TEXT.

1. Generally, the poecorm, the nominative case, should be withheld from the pleocorms, and poeclads which have the imperative, and petitionative cordictions; as, [Love,

thy neighbor, [Forgive, our sins.]

REMARK.—The poecorm is that foundation word in the frame-work of a mono, which forms the gnomaclade, or verb, into the sentence; as, Love thou thy enemy, Forgive thou our sins.

"Enemy," and sins are the nepoecorms. (See PART II.)

2. Monos of the imperative, and petitionative, cordiction, must always have the *gnomaclades* expressed. Generally, the *poecorm* should be omitted.

LESSON XX.

1. What is said of those monos which contain mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, whose, what, whatever, and whatsoever?

THE TEXT.

These words may fall into every kind of mono: but the pleocorms, poeclads, and nepoeclads, in which they are found are almost always implenary. This is not so generally the case with the monos in which its and his are used. above words are clades, mere branches, and must have some trunk, some corm expressed, or understood, on which to place a frame-work dependence. These words, however, are among that class of clades, which can give their full import to the reader, without any expressed corm on which to depend for their frame-work support. lowing are others of this class:

neither, either, all, such, former, first, latter, tittle, some, much, more, any, this, these, that, those, few, many, one, two, three, oldest, which, both, &c. These frequently come by ellipsis, before of; as, I saw many of the men.

That is, many men of the men; or many individuals

of the men.

I have no excuse but that of sickness.

That is, but that excuse of sickness. That, here, is used to avoid the use of "the excuse." I have no excuse but the excuse of sickness.

1. "I will get your books (if you will get mine,

2. "My eyes are not so good (as are thine

3. His books are newer than ours , are.")

4. My seat is higher (than hers, is.")

5. "Is there any tea in market which is better than

yours , is?")

- .6. "The gentlemen over the way have a large quantity of tea-but I do not know whether theirs, is better than ours , is."
 - 7. "Whose, is this, "?

8. "What, shall I get you?"

9. "Whatever, you please."

10. [But I wish to get you whatsoever,] you need."

The corms of his, and its, are generally expressed.

11. [" Neither , (of the books,) is new."]

, (of them) will answer."] 12. [" But either

13. [" All, , , (of the company,) must attend."]
14. [" Such, (of them) as can,) will."]

15. [" The former, (of these two propositions,) is not sound."]

16. [The first, (of the six,) is sound."]

17. [The last , (of them,) however, is unsound."]
18. ["The latter , (of the two apples,) is ripe."]
19. ["Give (me) a little ,] (of the pie.")

- 20. ["Shall I send (you) some,] (of the pudding?")
- 21. [" Much , (of what ,) (, ,) (, , was said,) was not understood."]

22. ["I will take a little more,] (of the pudding.")

23. [" Did any , (of the gentlemen) return?"]

24. A few , (of them) return.

- 25. ["Which, (of these two children,) is the older, ?"]
- 26. ["The eldest, (of my three sons) is now here."] 27. T" Are both (of your daughters) well?"]

REMARK.

Which is generally a corm; it is not a corm, however, where it stands conjected to a corm either expressed, or understood; as,

1. "Which man shall I call?"

2. "Which of these books will you have?"

3. They were in "considerable doubt as to which was the true Missouri."

In the following, which is a corm:

"There was a bifurcation which threw them into considerable doubt," &c.

LESSON XXI.

Who, Which, What, No, Not, Well, Surely, &c.

These may be the only expressed words in a particular kind of pleocorms:

- 1. "There is a lady at the door." $\lceil Who \rceil$ 2. Give me that one. [Which
- 3. Will you call on me this evening? [What
- 4. Has the John Adams arrived? No , , Not ,

- 5. "I came to Boston, where I found my two brothers who, I presumed, had been dead for several years." [, well,] and what then?
 - 6. "Does it rain?" [Surely , ,]

The, and of, on, through, and during, as noetons.

Of.

When the is omitted in the superior mono, before the derivative corms which have the ing termination, of is withheld from the inferior mono; as,

1. (In , writing) (, letters) [I learn to

compose.]

2. "He is impatient (at , having) (, nothing) to do."

Remark.—Of is also a noeton in the inferior mono when his, or a similar clade, is expressed in the superior; as, "His making (, a will) is important to us all."

"[I remember well, his (one day,) telling] me (, that) his friend had been to Europe."

When the nepoeclad, founded upon corms ending with self, and selves, and is introduced by of to shew that the person mentioned, acts not by proxy, but in his own proper person, breaks its superior mono, of should be omitted; as,

1. [" John (, himself) went."]

2. ["God (, himself) is the author] (of this universe.")

3. ("With which) (the apostles (, themselves) were endowed.")

REMARKS.

"John himself wrote this letter."

A person may be the author of a thing, in his own proper person; and he may be the author of it in the person of another, or by proxy. When John himself acts, he acts in propria persona, in his own proper person. But if John acts in the person of another, he acts by proxy. In some instances it becomes necessary to express in direct terms, that the agent acted in his own proper person—hence a mono is often added indicative of this idea; as, "John himself is the writer of the note."

This mono is generally implenary except where it has a post place; as

John (, himself.) went, John went (of himself.)

"As the branch cannot bear fruit (of itself.")

That is, the branch cannot be the author of fruit in propria persona, in its own proper self, for it must receive aid from the trunk.

God is the author of the universe (of himself.) himself) is the author of the universe. myself,) was there, I was there - (of myself.) John himself) was at court. - (of himself.) John was at court

How, in what way—was he there in propria persona; or was he there by proxy?

In the English Syntascope, page 58, I have attempted to show that the corms, himself, themselves &c., are not used for emphasis, as the old school syntaxists teach. Under the same page, I have also attempted to show that these corms are not in the nominative case, that they are not po-e-corms, but ne-po-e-corms.

1. Where the nepoeclad, founded on the subject which is changed from one state to another, breaks the superior mono, of should be omitted; as,

 ["They made (, him) a good boy."]
 ["They have made (, him) their him) their President."1

3. ["Her teachers have made (, her) a good scholar."]

2. Where the nepoeclad founded on the subject which is changed from one state to another, does not break the superior mono, of should be expressed; as,

1. [They made a good boy] (of him.)

2. I" We have made good horses (of them.")

3. [" The people have made a President] (of him.")

On, and through.

- 1. On, and through are often noetons in nepoeclads which are founded upon time, and space; as, "He arrived last Monday.") "But, now I go (my way) to him that sent me." "Nine times (the space) that measures day and night to mortal man."
 - During.
- 1. During is often a noeton of a nepoeclad which is founded on time; as, "Henry has travelled (six days) on foot."

By.

When the nepoeclad which is introduced to measure the exact amount of the overplus, breaks the superior mono, by should be omitted; as,

- [The tea is (, six pounds) too heavy.]
 ["James gave (, a thousand dollars) too much."1
- 2. When the nepoeclad which is introduced to measure the overplus, does not break the superior mono, by should be expressed; as,

1. [" The tea is too heavy] (by six pounds.")

2. ["James gave too much] (by a thousand dollars.")

Into.

1. In some instances where the nepoeclad is founded on the thing made, or to be made, into is understood; as, "Command that these stones be made (, bread.")

2. In many instances where the generic gnomaclade, or verb, is involved in the specific one, the monodone which would be expressed, was the generic gnomaclade used, is understood; as,

I. "Thomas struts (a soldier.")

The generic gnomaclade is, turns, or converts, and is involved in struts, the specific one. Struts, here, does not mean the mere act of strutting, as in "John struts about the room."

In the following, struts conveys the idea of turning, or

converting into:

"Thomas struts a soldier."

That is, he turns, or converts himself into a soldier by strutting. Thomas struts into a soldier.

In general, where the gnomaclade, or verb, is indicative of the act, and the means, as in the above case, into is actually expressed; as,

1. "He puffed his friend into a great man."

2. "This teacher has lectured his bad boys into good pupils."

3. "He laughed his friend into a mad man."

- 4. "The iron entered his soul—his bitter thoughts lashed him into a mad man."—Re. on G. Canning.
- 5. "A thousand pangs that lash me into madness."—Jephtha's reflections on his rash vow to sacrifice his daughter.

1. "He puffed his friend into a great man."

That is, he turned, or converted, his friend from a small man, into a great one, by puffing him.

2. "This teacher has lectured his bad boys into good

pupils."

That is, he has converted his bad boys into good boys, by lecturing them out of their bad habits.

3. "He laughed his friend into a mad man."

That is, he turned his friend from a serene man, into a mad man, by laughing at him.

"They laughed him to scorn."

Laughed, here, includes the act, and the means.

II. "Henry was crowned (, a king.")

III. "The people have crowned him (, a king.")

1. That is, Henry was turned, converted, from a mere man, into a king by crowning him. He was, therefore, crowned into a king.

2. That is, the people converted, turned him from a mere citizen man, into a king, by crowning him. The

people, then, crowned him into a king.

IV. "Washington was elected (, President.")

V. "The people elected Washington (, President.")

1. That is, Washington was turned, converted, from commander of the army, into a President, by *electing* him to this office.

2. That is, the people turned, converted, Washington

from a military officer, into a President, by electing him to this station. They elected him, then, into a President.

VI. "Where is he that is born (, king) of the Jews?"

VII. I constitute James (, my agent.")

- 1. The birth of Christ was the last act which was absolutely necessary to convert him into a king of the Jews. His birth, then, was the very act which crowned him king. His birth, therefore, crowned him into a king of the Jews.
- 2. That is, I elect James my agent: I take him from all others by whom I am surrounded, and convert, turn, him into my agent by electing him to the station for which I want him.

To, or into.

Where becomes is used in the sense of "grows to," or "grows into," or "turns to," or "turns into," to or into is withheld from the nepocclad which is founded on the thing into which the subject grows, or turns; as,

- 1. A calf becomes (, an ox.)
 2. A child becomes (, a man.)
- 3. John has become (, a Christian.)
- 4. The water became (, ice.)

LESSON XXII.

Entire monos are often noetons.

I. The pleocorm

may be a noeton where as-to is used as one part of

speech; as,

[", , , ,] (As-to the works of my predecessors, the shortness of the time since their commencement, and the difficulties attending philological investigation, forbid the belief that they have attained that degree of excellence to which English syntax may be carried. [It may be observed.]

II. The poeclad

is often a *noeton* where some word in the *inferior* mono, is omitted, and which cannot be supplied without the introduction of an entire *poeclad*; as,

1. "Henry purchased what ,] (, ,)
he wanted.")

2. ["Give (me) what ,] (, ,) (
I want;) (and I will return.")

3. [What , (, ,) (, , to do,) we could not tell."]

The entire poeclad: "it was."

REMARKS.

It is the common practice to exchange what for that which. But surely none will say that this exchange is a solution of the word! That and which take the place of what. These words are parsed, and what is thrown out! Now, if the parsing of that, and which can be considered a parsing of what, the parsing of a word is something entirely different from anything of which I have had a conception. Let us take the true method, which, I believe, is the following:

He got what he wanted.

That is, He got what thing it was which he wanted. The word, what, is a metaclade, an adjective, belonging to thing, understood.

The calling of words compound relatives, and then throwing them from the sentence, is certainly a queer way of parsing them!

"But they understood not what he spake unto them."

Here the old school grammarians call what a compound relative, and reject it for that and which. The translator, however, has rendered this sentence full; and, in doing so, he has demonstrated that what is not a proxy corm of any kind, but a mere metaclade.

"But they understood not (what things) (they were,) (which he

spake) (unto them.")

The poeclad

is often a noeton to sustain an inferior mono; as,

1. ("By grace) (, , a) [are ye saved] (athrough faith.")

[Ye are saved] (by grace) (, ,) (through faith.) Conjective Reading:—(which cometh) (through faith.)

2. [I saw a pin] (, , a) (a on the floor.)

3. ["A tap (,,,, a) (a on his shoulder)

drew his attention] (from me.")
4. ["Do you know a man] (, , , a) (a by the name) (of James.") who goes

I. II. Nepoeclads
are often noetons where the specific mono implies the
generic; as,
1. ["The boy was called (, , ,) (,
John.")
2. [" The army is (, , ,) (, ten thousand men) strong."]
3. [I have some recollection] (of his father's being)
(, , ,) (, a judge.)
(, , ,) (, a judge.) 4. ["The wall is (, , ,) (, six
feet) high."]
5. ["The board is (, , ,) (, an
inch) thick."]
6. ["This boy is (, , ,) (, ten years) old."]
7. ["He counted his army] (, , ,
(, man) (by man.")
8. [Henry rode] (, , ,) (, day)
(after day.)
9. ["They stood] (, , ,) (,
9. ["They stood] (, , ,) (, one ,) (by another , .") 10. ["The children were arranged] (, , , ,) (, one ,) (after another , .") 11. ["They went] (, , , ,) (, one ,) (after another , .")
one (after another)
11. [" They went] (, , ,) (
one ,) (after another , .")
12. "Iney marched (, , ,) (,
two ,) (by two , .")
13. "John fell] (, , ,) (, neck)
13. "John fell] (, , , ,) (, neck) (and , ,) (, , ,) (, heels.") 14. The tea weighs (, , ,) (, six pounds.)
The tea weights (, , ,) (, six pounds.)
I. The specific monos.
(John,) (, ten thousand men,) (, judge,) (, six feet,) (, an inch,) (, ten years,) (, man) (by man,) (, day) (after
(, six feet,) (, an inch.) (, ten
years,) (, man) (by man,) (, day) (after
day,) (, one ,) (after another , ,) (, two ,) (by two , ,) (, neck,) (, heels.) [Part III., page 22.]
neck) (heels) [PART III nage 99]
incom, (, necessity [I mil III., page 22.]
II. The generic monos.
(by the name,) (to the amount,) (in the office,) (in the
order.)

LESSON XXIII.

1. When should a poeclad be added?

2. Have you examined with great care, all the instances which illustrate the second rule in this lesson?

3. What is the first rule?

- 4. Can you give any of the illustrations under these rules?
- 5. What are the noetons which are employed in giving an additional poeclad?

THE TEXT.

RULES

For adding poeclads by such noetons as "who am," "who was," "who has," "who will," "who will be," "which is," "that is," "that were," "which are," "as was," "that had," "and I was," "and he is," "and they are," "I," "thou," "he," "they," "who," &c., &c.

Rule I.

Where another cordiction is in exact harmony with the true construction of the sentence, a poeclad should be added; as,

1. [" There was a man] (, , sent) (from

God.")

2. ["He was there] (, , sick,) (and friendless.")

3. ["Those , (, going) (before,) tarried] (for us,) (at Troas.")

The noeton is, who, or they—who going, or they going.

The principle is this:

Every additional cordiction is a new mono, whether that cordiction is expressed, or implied.

4. ("He being wise) [we gave heed] (to his advice.")

"He being wise" is as much an affirmation as is "we gave heed," or as is "He was wise."

5. ["I found John ,] (, , reading his book.")

[I found John when] (he was reading his book.)

It would not comport with the sense to say

I found John who was reading his book.

6. [" John had his horse shot] (under him.")*

It would pervert the sense to make an additional mono: [John had his horse] (which was shot) (under him.)

7. ["James had his arm shot off."]

8. [Nathaniel had a horse stolen.]

A poeclad would change the sense:

[Nathaniel had a horse] (which was stolen.) He had possession of a horse which was stolen, is not the idea: he had a horse stolen.

9. [A party (of the Seneca Indians,) came to war] (against the Kataubas,) (bitter enemies) (to each-other.)

Each, and other must be taken together as a corm.

RULE II.

When there is no additional cordiction in the sense, all the words must be included in one mono; as,

1. [" I found him sick."]

2. [" We found them friendly."]

3. "He was found dead."

The introduction of a poeclad, would pervert the true idea :

1. I found him who was dead.

2. We found them who were friendly.

REMARKS.

When and occurs between two monos of address, it does not belong to either mono of address, but to a poeclad, modelled after the pleocorm, or after that poeclad to which the mono of address is conjected; as,

("Men,) (brethren,) (and) (fathers,) [hearken [Hearken ye,] men;) (and hearken ye,) (brethren;) (and hearken ye,) (fathers.)

The first poeclad is all understood.

* "His horse shot," is the nepoecorm of had. (See page 181.)

LESSON XXIV.

Whoever, Whosoever, Though, and Although.

1. Whoever rarely, if ever, is found in pleocorms.

Whoever would learn grammar as it is, must study it as it is.

(Whoever would learn grammar) (as it is) [he must study it] (as it is.)

2. (" Whosoever believeth) [, shall be saved."]

3. Who, which, that, as, whom, and whomsoever, are rarely, if ever, found in pleocorms.

REMARKS.

Who and whom may be found in the interrogative pleo-

corm; as, Who is he? Whom did you call?

2. Which, and that may be in a pleocorm when they are mere clades; as, Which man came? That book is mine.

Though.

Though rarely, if ever, gives a pleocorm, except where yet introduces a poeclad; as, [Though he was rich;] (yet he became poor) (for our sakes.)

(Though he was rich,) [he became poor] (for our sakes.) [He became poor] (for our sakes) (though he was rich.)

Thus it is seen what an influence a little word may produce in reducing the rank of a mono.

REMARKS.

There are many sentences, which, to an old school grammarian, appear to be good English, that are so incorrect that they cannot be monoized. Among them are the following:

"He that hath ears to hear, let him hear."
 "He that formed the ear, can he not hear?"

- 3. "A little while, and ye shall not see me; and again a little while, and ye shall see me, because I go to the Father."
 - 1. He in the first, and in the second, should be him.
 - 2. Both hims, however, should be rejected as pleonasms.
 - 1. [Let , him (that hath ears to hear ,) , hear , ?]

2. [Can he (that formed the ear,) not hear , ?]

3. [After (a little while shall have passed) ye shall not see me;] and again I say) (after (a little while shall have passed) ye shall see me,) (because I shall go) (to the Father.)

[After (a little while) ye shall not see me;1 (, again , ,) (after (a little while , shall see me,) because I , go) (to the Father.)

The following are bad:

1. "Conduct in such a way as that you will secure the friendship

Conduct yourself in such a way as will secure to you the friend-

2. "He called "for the purpose" that he might see his old friends

again."

Omit, "for the purpose."

As should not come before that, where that stands before a mono denoting a purpose, an object to be accomplished.

LESSON XXV.

1. When does an entire mono become a corm?

2. When does one entire mono make a mere part of another mono?

3. When does the demimono become a corm?

THE TEXT.

"At length," "at large," "at least," "by all means," "in fine," "in short," "at all," &c., are all distinct monos.

Have you hurt yourself? [, , Not , ,] (at all.)

1. When one, or more monos, bear a corm relation to a clade in another mono, the mono, or monos, become a corm of the other mono; as,

[He said "they-will-reverence-my-son."]

He said what? "they will reverence my son." mono, then, is taken as one thing, as one long word, as the nepoecorm of said.

The Demimono.

2. When the demimono bears a corm relation to a clade, the demimono is, in relation to the clade, a corm;

1. [" What went ye out] (for TO-SEE.") [To-see-our-friends is pleasing.]

Here, "to see," is the corm of the clade, for. And, "To see our friends," is the corm of the clades, is, and pleasing. (English Syntascope, p. 203.)

SPECIMEN.

[He said (where-art-thou?)]

A plenary unbroken pleocorm.

" Where art thou."

A plenary unbroken poeclad, the nepoecorm of said, uni relation, belonging to the first part of the pleocorm. Conjective Reading: [He said] (where art thou.)

EXERCISES.

- 1. [He said where art thou?] "where art thou?"
- 2. [He said they will reverence my son.]
 "they will reverence my son."
- 3. [His disciples asked (of him) who did sin?]

"who did sin?"

- 4. [Jesus saith (to Simon Peter) lovest thou me? "lovest thou me?"
- 5. [And Peter said Lord, thou knowest all things.]

 (" Lord) (thou knowest all things.")
- 6. [But now ye seek to kill me.] (to kill me.)
- 7. ["They said Abraham is our father.]
 (Abraham is our father.)
- 8. [Jesus said if ye were Abraham's children, ye would do the works of Abraham.]
- (" If ye were Abraham's children,) (ye would do the works) (of Abraham.")

LESSON XXVI.

EP-E-DENDROLOGY.

- 1. What is a corm?
- 2. What is a clade?
- 3. What is ep-e-dendrology?
- 4. How many ranks have clades?
- 5. Have clades relations?
- 6. What is the uni relation?
- 7. What is the rank of a clade?
- 8. What is the relation of a clade?
- 9. What does epe mean?

THE TEXT.

EP-E-DEN-DROLOGY is the second part of dendrology, and respects the *trunk*, and *branch* relations of the *words* of a mono. *Ep-e*, from *epos—word*. (See p. 64.)

Division of words under ep-e-den-drology.

1. The words of a mono are divided under epedendrology into corms, and clades.

1. Corm, from kormos, trunk, basis, foundation.

2. Clade, from klados, branch, dependent part, an unfoundational word.

I. CORM.

The corm, or noun is a foundation word in the framework of a mono; as, [He went] (unto the mount) (of Olives.)

REMARK.—What the trunk is to its branches in the frame-work of a tree, the corm, or noun is to the clades in the frame-work of a mono.

II. CLADE.

The clade is a word which has a branch dependence upon another word; as, [He then went] (unto the mount) (of Olives.)

REMARK.—What the branches are to the trunk, in the frame-work of a tree, the clades are to the corm in the frame-work of a mono. As some branches hold a direct relation to the trunk, so some clades hold a direct relation to the corm; as, [He then went] (unto the mount) (of Olives.)

And as some branches hold an *indirect*, or remote relation to the trunk, but a direct, or close one to another branch, so some clades hold an indirect, or remote connection to the corm, but a

direct, or close one to another clade; as, He then went.

RANK, AND RELATION OF CLADES.

The rank of a clade respects its near, or remote relation to the corm. There are six ranks. They are marked in the prepared exercises, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

I. ILLUSTRATION.

 $\begin{array}{c} & 1\\ Cold \text{ weather.} \\ 2 & 1\\ Too \text{ cold weather.} \\ 3 & 2 & 1\\ Much \text{ too cold weather.} \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1\\ Very \text{ much too cold weather.} \end{array}$

II. ILLUSTRATION.

cold weather, A clade of the first rank, belonging to weather.

2.1 1
too cold weather, A clade, two constructive degrees
from weather, and one from cold.

3.2.1 2.1 1

much too cold weather, A clade, three constructive degrees from meather, two from cold, and one from too.

4.3.2.1 3.2.1 2.1 1

very much too cold weather,

A clade, four constructive degrees from weather, three from cold, two from too, and one from much.

5.4.3.2.1. 4.3.2.1. 3.2.1. 2.1. 1

this boy's mother's father's brother's son, A clade, five constructive degrees from son, four from brother's, three from father's, two from mother's, and one from boy's.

2. The relations of a clade respect the number of words to which the clade belongs. There are two relations, viz., Uni, and Plus.

1. The uni relation respects one frame-work connection which a clade holds with another word; as, cold water.

2. The plus relation respects a *plural* frame-work connection which a clade holds with corms; as, He *drank* water.

RULES.

- 1. Every clade of the first rank must be conjected to the corm, or corms which sustain it in the frame-work of the mono.
- 2. Every clade of the second rank must be conjected to the clade of the first, which sustains it in the frame-work of the mono.
- 3. Every clade of the third rank, must be conjected to the clade of the second, which sustains it in the framework of the mono.
- 4. Every clade of the fourth rank, must be conjected to the clade of the third, which sustains it in the framework of the mono.

5. Every clade of the fifth rank must be conjected to the clade of the fourth, which sustains it in the frame-

work of the mono.

7. Every clade belonging to a mono, is of the first rank, uni relation; and it must be conjected to the mono which sustains it in the frame-work of the gnomod; as, he went, because (he was called.)

REMARKS.—This principle applies to those monodones only, which give pleocorms, and poeclads. The monodones which give nepoeclads, stand conjected, not to the

whole mono, but to the corm only, of the mono.

Every clade which belongs to a whole mono, is of the first rank, because the entire mono in relation to this one clade, is a corm. And every clade which belongs to a whole mono, is of the uni relation, because the mono to which the clade belongs, is but one corm:

"Henry went because (he was called.")

"He was called" is the corm of because. This mono is but one corm—hence because is of the uni relation. (See p. 56.)

1. The ranks are denoted by 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

- 2. The uni relation by the erect posture of the figure: 2, 1.
 - 3. The plus relation, by the horizontal posture: w-4. In this Lesson the clades only, have figures: 1, 2, 3.

SPECIMEN.

1. [The fire is very much too hot.]

a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to fire. Conjective

Reading: the fire. Rule 1.

fire, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to fire. Conjective Reading: fire is. Rule 1.

a clade, fourth rank, uni relation, belonging to much. Convery, jective Reading: very much. Rule 4.

a clade, third rank, uni relation, belonging to too. Conjective much, Reading: much too. Rule 3. a clade, second rank, uni relation, belonging to hot. Conjectoo,

tive Reading: too hot. Rule 2.

a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to fire. Conjective hot, Reading: hot fire. Rule 1.

2. ["And his disciples said 'Who-then-can-be-saved?"]

And, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to its own mono.

Conjective Reading: And his-disciples-said-who-then-can-be-saved. Rule 7.

his, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to disciples. Conjective Reading: his disciples. Rule 1.

disciples, a corm.

said, a clade, first rank, plus relation, belonging to disciples, and the cormified mono, who-then-can-be-saved. Conjective Reading: disciples said who-then-can-be-saved. Rule 1. who-then-can-be-saved, a corm. (See page 181.)

(Who then can be saved?)

Who, a corm.

then,
a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to its own mono.
Conjective Reading: then who-can-be-saved. Rule 7.
(See then, page 107.)

can, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to who. Con-

jective Reading: who can. Rule 1.

be, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to who. Conjective Reading: who be. Rule 1.

saved, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to who Conjective Reading: saved who. Rule 1.

REMARKS.

In giving the conjective reading, no attention need be paid to the euphony of the words. The only object in conjecting the inferior words to their respective superiors, is to demonstrate their frame-work dependence; hence, if the process does mar the euphony, it can produce no bad result: this will enable the pupil to decide the connection of words by the judgment instead of by the ear.

John is writing letters.

Conjective Reading of writing; John writing letters.

3. ["What, went ye out to see?"]

What, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to thing understood. Conjective Reading: what thing. Rule 1.

thing, understood, a corm.

went, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to ye. Conjective Reading: ye went. Rule 1.

ye, a corm.
out, a clade, second rank, uni relation, belonging to went.
Conjective Reading: went out. Rule 2.

to,
a clade, second rank, uni relation, belonging to see. Conjective Reading: to see. Rule 2. (See pp. 52, 53.)
see,
a clade, first rank, plus relation, belonging to ye, and thing. Conjective Reading: thing ye see, or ye see thing. Rule 1. (page 52.)

(What thing [went ye out] for to-see.)
(For to-see-what-thing) [went ye out?]

For, a clade, first rank, unirelation, belonging to the cormified demimono, to-see-what-thing. Conjective Reading: for to-see-what-thing. Rule 7, (page 181.) to-see-what-thing, a corm.

4. ["It is well known that] (man is mortal.")

It, a corm.

is, a clade, first rank, plus relation, belonging to it, and that.

Conjective Reading: it is that. Rule 1.

well, a clade, second rank, uni relation, belonging to known. Conjective Reading: well known. Rule 2.

known, a clade, first rank, plus relation, belonging to it, and that.

Conjective Reading: it known that. Rule 1.*

that, a corm.

man is mortal.

man, a corm.

is, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to man. Conjective Reading: man is. Rule 1.

mortal, a clade, first rank, uni relation, belonging to man.

Conjective Reading: mortal man. Rule 1.

PREPARED EXERCISES.

Coal black cloth.

2 1 Strikingly green trees.

1 1 3 2 1

This fact is very well known.

Grayish blue cloth.

Those, fine, beautiful, young, green, straight trees.

4 3 2 1 How very fast James walks.

^{*} It and that are the known things.

```
I am most completely disappointed.
  Very much too cold weather.
      1 4 3 2
  The weather is very much too warm.
 He is a very learned man.
         <sub>1</sub> 1 1
 John will be a good scholar.
 Cold, dark nights.
  Marble ware house.
 Cloud capt towers.
 1 1 1 1 2 1 [The tea is ( , six pounds) too heavy.] P. 173.
 1 1 1 1 Tom struts] ( , a soldier.) P. 173.
         1
             1
 [Henry was crowned] ( , a king.) P. 173.
 1 1 1 1 2
 [The army is ( , , , ) ( , ten thousand men)
strong.] P. 177.
                4 3 2 1
 The distance is very much too long.
```

They can not write letters.

Every clade of the second rank must belong to one of the *first*; hence, where there are two of the *first*, the sense must decide to which of the two the clade of the second, belongs. In the above example, there are two of the first—can, and write. And the question is, to which of these two, not belongs. It is the province of not to

deny the power, or ability to do the act of writing. And to lead the mind to this sense of the expression, not has a figure over it corresponding in size to that over can. Not, and never almost always belong to the clade which falls on the left hand.

[John then went] (for his book;) (but* he did not get it.)

I have not written letters.

He would not learn his lesson.

He planted a vineyard.

[He is a lad] (whom you may not know.)

1 1 2 1 1 Idle shildren will not been their he

Idle children will not learn their books.

This large book has been written long since.

These boys have not been writing their copies.

We have been laughing.

1 2 1

You have been walking.

1 3 2 1

We shall have been walking.

Coal black cloth.

Strikingly green trees.

The fact is very well known.

Grayish blue cloth.

These boys have not been writing their copies.

We have been laughing.

1 2 1

You have been walking.

We shall have been walking.

^{*} But, a clade belonging to its own mono. Rule 7.

The distance is very much too long. His father was very much pleased. Very much too cold weather. Coal black cloth. Strikingly green trees. This fact is very well known. Grayish blue cloth.

Peter * Samuel Lucy Sally Julia Harriet Men	made cut knits makes studies read built	Samuel's Peter's men's ladies' Murray's Homer's Solomon's	shoes. hand. mittens. clothes. works. Iliad. temple.
		Solomon's	

1. ["His disciples said (who-then-can-be-saved?")]

2. [(" Thou-shalt-love-the-Lord") is the first commandment.]

3. The first commandment is ("Thou-shalt-love-the-

Lord.")]

4. [The first commandment is that] ("Thou shalt love the Lord.")

5. [For-God to-do-wrong is impossible.]

6. [It is impossible] (for God-to-do-wrong.)
7. [Have you read (the-Sonship-of-Jesus-Christ?)

The titles of books, &c., which comprise two or more words, are

corms; as, "Brown's Remains," "Report of Sunday Schools," "Edwards on Redemption," "Sonship of Jesus Christ."

- 8. [To-forgive-our-enemies is divine.]
- 9. [It is divine] (to-forgive-our-enemies.)

10. [I desire (to-return-now.,]

11. [\(\tau To-return-now\), is my desire.]

12. Îs to-give-tribute, (unto Cæsar) lawful?

13. [I wish (for to-return-immediately.]]

14. (For (to-return-immediately)) is (for (to-obey-his-orders.))]

15. [I wish] (for \tau-obey-his-orders.,)

16. [I desire to-obey-his-orders.]

- 17. [It is said that] (the President is sick.)
- 18. ["Now we know that] (thou hast a devil.")

19. [Command thou that] (these stones, be made)
(, bread.) 20. [For I will send all my plagues] (upon thine head) (, that) (they may know that) (there is none) (, , like) (, me) (in the land.) 21. [And it came to pass, (in those days) that] (there
21. [And it came to pass, (in those days) that] (there went out a decree) (,, that) (all the world
should be taxed.) 22. [It is so] (with me) (, , , that) (I
cannot attend.) 23. ["And it was revealed (unto him) that] (he should not see death before) (he had seen the Lord's Christ.") 24. ["Now it came to pass, (on a certain day) that] (he
entered) (into a ship.")
gave (, me) much praise.)
26. (, Much) (as man desires) [a little will answer.]
27. [It was nearly (at the moment) (, , ,) (, , that) (Augustus Cæsar had (for a third time) since (the foundation (of the city) , , ,) shut the temple) (of Janus) (in token) (of the prevalence) (of universal peace) that (the Saviour (of the world) was
born.) •
28. (O,) [, , that] (I had the wings) (of the dove) (, that) (I could soar) (above this earth)
(of wo.) 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
[I shall go] (for all , , ,) (, , , , , 1
(The hat cost] (, , ,) (, five dollars.) P. 177.
[The hat is] (, , worth) (, a dol- lar.) P. 167.
For everying in Frederick teles name 40 50 61

For exercises in Epedendrology, take pages 49, 59, 61, 68, 69, 82, 91, 105, 114, 118, 127, 144, 148, 155, 159, 169, 170, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 182, 165, 166.

PART II.

THE English Syntax comprises three distinct parts. The second part only, is offered as a substitute for the old system. And, that the teachers who may use Part I., may see the simplicity and brevity of Part II., I give this synopsis of its leading principles.

(The reasons for the new nomenclature, are given under page 19.)

I. Corms are divided into *Poecorms*, and *Nepoecorms*.

F 1

1. Poe-corm, the corm which converts the gno-maclade into the sentence; as, John resembles James. John.

- 2. Nepoe-corm, the corm which does not convert the gnoma-clade into the sentence; as, James resembles John. John.
 - II. Clades are divided into Gnomaclades, and Agnomaclades.

1. Gnoma-clade, a clade, capable of being converted into a gno-me, a sentence; as, resembles, can, writes, am, is, see.

- 2. Agnoma-clade, a clade, not capable of being converted into a gno-me, or sentence; as, alike, of, high.
 - III. AGNOMACLADES, into Steroclades, Metaclades, Clonoclades, and Monoclades.

New. Truth.

OLD. Error.

Po-e-. } corm.
 Noun in the nominative case.
 Noun in the objective case.

1. Gno-ma-)... Verb, participle.

2. Ste-ro- . . . Preposition.

3. Met-a- clade. Adjective, article, possessive case.

4. Clo-no- . . . Ad-verb.

5. Mon-o- J. . . . Conjunction.

1. Stero-clade, a clade, fixed to the nepoecorm; as, I heard of him.

2. Meta-clade, a clade, capable of being conjected by alternation, to both corms; as, These boys saw these books.

3. Clono-clade, a clade of a clade; as, very good apples.

4. Mono-clade, a clade which is conjected to an entire mono; as, ["He went;] (but he did not remain.")

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